

# THE EUROPEAN WAR THE POWERS



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# THE EUROPEAN WAR

THE POWERS

## NEW COLLECTIONS OF UNIVERSAL INTEREST

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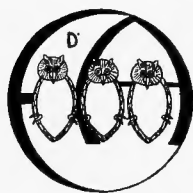
# THE EUROPEAN WAR

The Powers

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EDITED BY

R. STROPPA-QUAGLIA



NEW COLLECTIONS OF UNIVERSAL INTEREST

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*New York*

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## Introduction

The present European War is one of the great crises or turning points in the history of all the nations engaged in it. Whatever the future of the nations may be—whether it be a phase of progress or decline—it will take a new direction, for these nations have been violently torn from the groove along which their lives have hitherto run, and to which return is now forbidden.

Any attempt to trace the causes of this great struggle, any discussion of the course of events, any prophecies for the future, would be premature, and indeed an impossible task. While war is in process, personal feelings cloud the judgment and dim the perspective in which causes and results can be seen in their proper relations. Though the various nations have stated their official positions in the different White, Blue, Orange and Gray papers and thus have invited the consideration of the world, the ordered paragraphs of a diplomatic statement do not offer a broad enough field for conjecture, and it would be neither wise or profitable to weigh the exaggerated rumors which drift with the smoke from the battlefields.

Writers who to-day engage in the task of recounting the economic, military and moral condition of the major European powers, can scarcely escape the presentiment that their work must prove, in some cases at least, a kind of epitaph. In fact, what is written in this book—accurate and true as it was only a few weeks ago—already belongs to the past history of ten nations. Never again will Europe—or the World—resume the aspect which is here described. A great historical alignment of nations and peoples is vanishing before our eyes.

It is these considerations (besides the indirect influence which such a titanic struggle must exercise on the national and social life of every civilized nation), which lend such an interest and pathos to the present war. An old familiar condition, which we had presumed to be as stable as humanity itself, is changing, and what the new condition will be we cannot even guess. We purposely avoid touching on the savage methods by which this change is effected, for the dark aspect which war must always wear needs no emphasizing.

The Editors of the present work place before the eyes of their readers ten nations moving into the greatest conflict of history in all their glorious panoply. Their military, naval and economic resources and the territories they rule are given as they stood at the beginning of the war, but who shall say how they stand to-day? Readers may read in this work the past history of these countries, while the latest and most vital events of this history are being enacted. Full

information is given of forms of government, of princes, of kings, and of much else which will not survive the present war unimpaired.

The Editors believe that the wealth of illustration, which increases the interest and value of their volume, will later possess a tenfold value and interest as a means of enabling readers to visualize an Old Regime which has passed.

With the close of hostilities and after the publication of the official reports of the different general staffs, both of the warring and neutral nations, sufficient facts will be public to offer a legitimate field for opinion, and access will be had to sources which will make possible an accurate and impartial account of the war. Then the Editors have planned to publish other volumes, the material for which is already gathered. Arrangements have been made to obtain the valuable co-operation of prominent political and military authorities of the different nations in order to have only the most accurate description of facts.

We wish to offer our thanks and best appreciation to the consulates of the warring nations for their very kind assistance in enabling us to consult the latest official statistics.

We desire also to express a very sincere and deep appreciation to the Royal and Imperial Austro-Hungarian, and to the Imperial German General, Consuls, who in the midst of their pre-occupation and press of work, found time to revise the chapters of the sections of their respective countries.

THE EDITORS.





The Red Cross

Ten per cent. of the profit of our publication is devoted to the Red Cross fund. A monthly financial statement will be made public and the allotted sum, divided among Austria-Hungary, England, France, Germany and Russia, in five equal parts, will be sent to the respective consulates from which it will be forwarded to the Red Cross abroad.

The monthly financial statement will be revised by a special board, among whose members we have the honor of enlisting:

R. H. L. Cottenet	Harrison G. Rhodes
Henry G. Gray	Luigi Sillitti
Philip Lewisohn	Henry J. Whigham



"WOMEN IN WAR" BY PETER KAHLMAN

### THE RED CROSS

Though a Red Cross society was not organized until the middle of the 19th century, various nursing orders of Sisters were accustomed to visit the field after a battle and do what they could to alleviate the sufferings of the wounded. In the Crimean War of 1854, Florence Nightingale, who had studied nursing with the Sisters of Charity, volunteered to form a band of lay nurses for the relief of the soldiers and her services won for her the gratitude of the nations. In 1861, Henri Dunant published his experiences of the Franco-Italian War against Austria (1859) in "Un Souvenir de Solferino." This book created such a deep impression and the public was so aroused by the conditions revealed, that an unofficial conference met at Geneva in 1863, under the auspices of M. Gustave Moynier, to discuss plans for the relieving of the condition of wounded soldiers. The meeting was attended by delegates from 16 governments and remained in session 4 days. It was followed by a convention to which all nations were invited

to send delegates, and which convened at Geneva in 1864. A code for the alleviation of suffering during war was drawn up, and has since been adopted by most of the European countries. This code was revised on July 6, 1906, and by it all the countries agree to respect the persons and property of those who voluntarily devote themselves to this work. They must have a recognized costume, flag and arm badge (a red cross on a white ground). This insignia was adopted out of compliment to the Swiss, whose national flag is a white cross on a red ground. The Red Cross must on all occasions be accompanied by the national flag. Each treaty nation must have one national committee, civil in character and function, which shall be the medium of communication with its government, and which alone shall have the right to use the red cross.

The Red Cross first came into practical operation during the Franco-Prussian War, but owing to lack of management did not accomplish as much as had been expected. Since then more attention has been paid to organization, and the European countries have efficient Red Cross corps attached to their armies. Aside from considerations of humanity, they realized that a wounded soldier when properly taken care of, was, in many cases, able to resume the field within a comparatively short time, and it was thus much easier to fill the gaps of the regiments caused by the havoc of war. In war, the Red Cross mobilizes with the army, is under the command of army surgeons, and forms part of the army sanitary body.

The International Conference of 1912 was agreed on the plan of extending the operations of the Red Cross to humanitarian measures in time of peace, not only for philanthropic reasons, but also in order to preserve the efficiency of the organization for war purposes. Great Britain alone held to the strict war services. In many countries the Red Cross has done valuable services in educating the people to the advantage and importance of sanitary measures and has waged a constantly successful war against such diseases as tuberculosis.

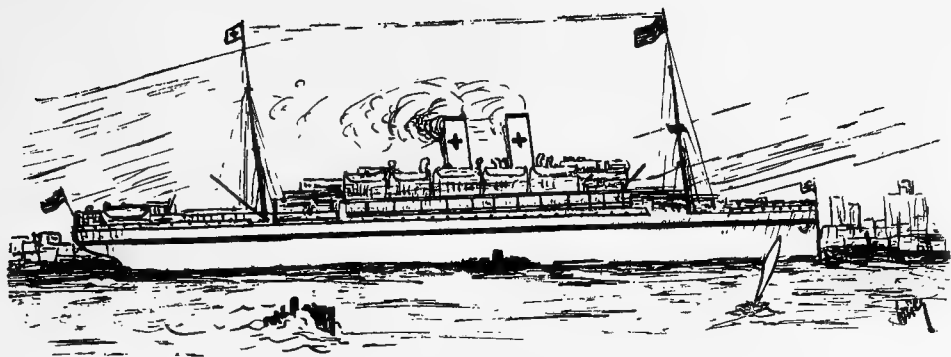
The Italians have taken up the work of the Red Cross with enthusiasm. It is marvelously well organized, down to the smallest towns, is supported with great generosity, and does an immense amount of relief work in connection with the poor. The Austrian Red Cross follows the Italian organization to a great extent, while the French incline more to Russian lines, which permit a more mobile organization. In Russia the Red Cross met with great popular favor, and early assumed more importance and influence than in other countries. The government subsidizes it, granting it many privileges, and the Dowager Empress Marie donates considerable sums to it. In Germany the Red Cross takes on a more military aspect, being more directly associated with the army medical corps. Imbued with the German spirit for accuracy, detail and precision, the organization has a special efficiency and carries its military order into the struggles against tuberculosis, in which it has been very successful. The British Red Cross developed more slowly, but in the South African war did good service, and since then has been carefully organized. The Russo-Japanese War awoke the spirit of devotion and service in the Japanese, and the work of the Red Cross in the field was highly praised. Since the war a Red Cross association has been attached to every hospital.



A MODERN EQUIPMENT OF THE RED CROSS







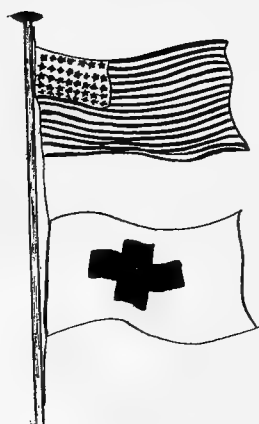
S. S. "RED CROSS"

## THE AMERICAN NATIONAL RED CROSS

The American Association of the Red Cross, was founded by Clara Barton, the famous Civil War nurse. It numbered about a dozen nurses, and developed very slowly. Miss Barton early perceived the need of a trained organization, national in scope and permanent in character, which could have a wider career of usefulness than mere war service, and render assistance in times of disaster. Under her influence the Red Cross gradually extended their operations to include relief and preventative measures in time of peace, an idea which had great popular appeal. Hence in 1905, Congress passed an act incorporating the American National Red Cross, declaring its purpose (aside from duties in war) to be to continue and carry on a system of national and international relief in time of peace, and apply the same to mitigate the suffering caused by pestilence, fire and flood. It now has about 3,500 trained nurses, all with three years' hospital experience. They hold themselves in instant readiness to respond to the call of the Red Cross, in war or peace, during special emergencies, such as the San Francisco earthquake, the Titanic disaster and the Ohio floods of 1912. In the last instance more nurses applied than could be used.

The governing body consists of a central committee (18 members), the chairman and five members of which are appointed by the President of the United States. The remaining members are elected at the annual meeting of the society. There are three relief boards: War, National and International; each State has a board (3 to 10 members), appointed by the Chairman of the Central Committee, and the Governor of the State is chairman of this board. Local organizations, called chapters, are formed in over a hundred cities, the duty of which is to collect funds and supplies. Charitable organizations may enroll as "institutional members," and any citizen of the United States is eligible for membership.

At the outbreak of the present European War, the Red Cross equipped a supply ship for the relief of the wounded and sick. Under the rules of the Geneva and Hague agreements, a ship of this nature is permitted to enter any harbor, but the S. S. "Red Cross" will not proceed to German or Russian harbors, and it is stated that supplies for those countries will be sent overland through the lines. At the time of the Messina earthquake, the Red Cross also sent a supply ship, which was of immense help.



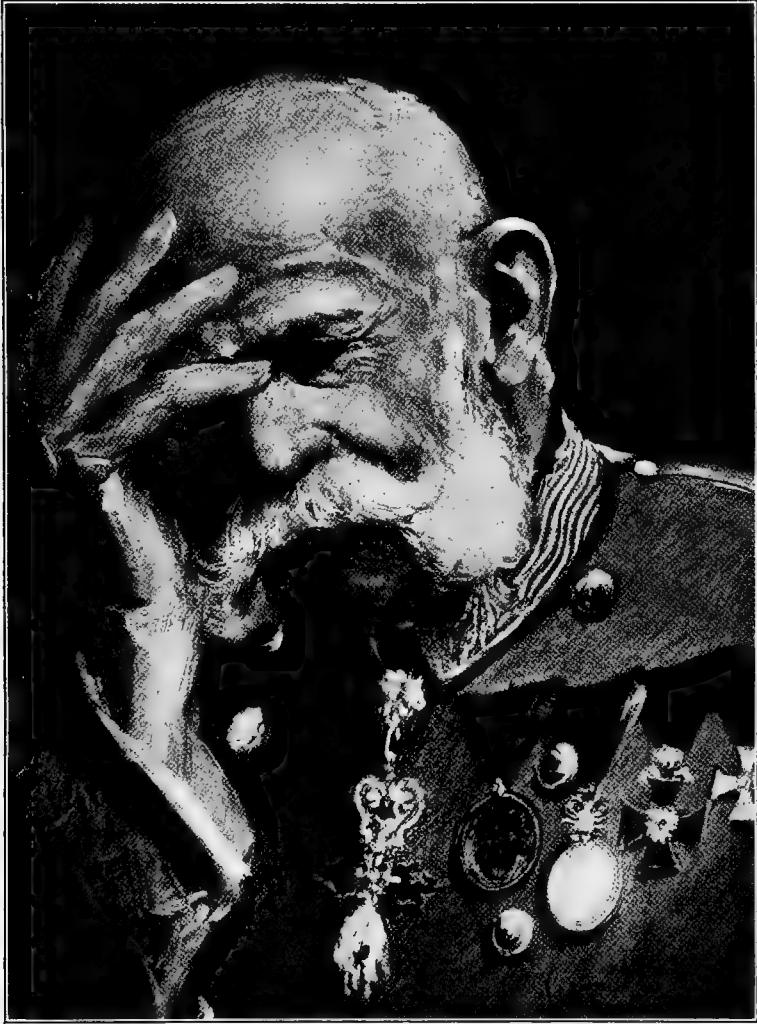


Austria - Hungary









FRANCIS JOSEPH THE FIRST





## The Hapsburg Family



THE ARCHDUKE CARL FRANCIS JOSEPH, HEIR TO THE THRONE,  
HIS WIFE, THE ARCHDUCHESS ZITA, AND THEIR TWO CHILDREN



THE LATE EMPRESS ELIZABETH, CONSORT OF FRANCIS JOSEPH



EMPEROR MAXIMILIAN, BROTHER OF FRANCIS JOSEPH; KILLED BY THE MEXICANS



THE LATE ARCHDUKE RU-  
DOLF, ONLY SON OF  
FRANCIS JOSEPH



CHARLOTTE, WIFE  
OF MAXMILIAN

## FRANCIS JOSEPH I



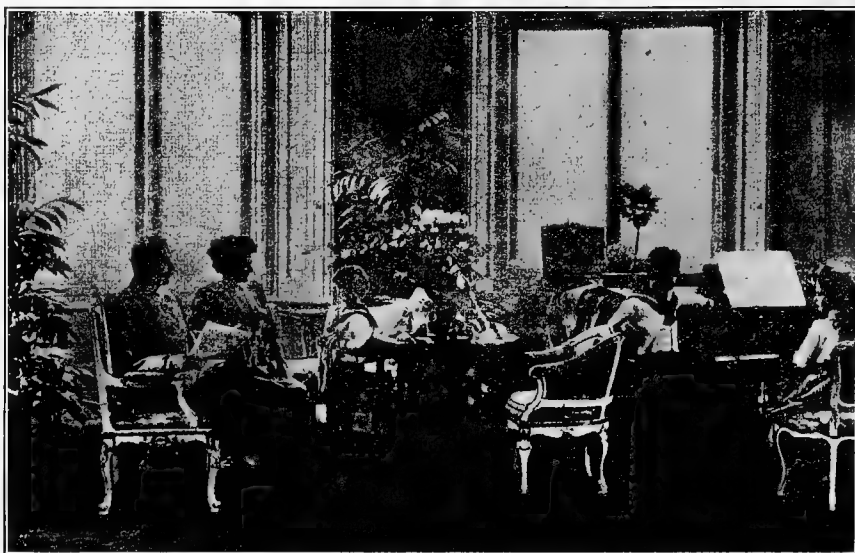
Francis Joseph I (born 1830), Emperor of Austria, King of Bohemia and Apostolic King of Hungary, is the eldest son of Archduke Francis (son of Francis I) and Archduchess Sophie, Princess of Bavaria. On the abdication of his uncle, Ferdinand I, on December 2, 1848, Francis Joseph became Emperor. His accession took place in the midst of revolution in Italy and Hungary. The Emperor personally entered the Hungarian campaign, and, aided by Russia, subdued Hungary, while his army quelled the Italian insurgents. Following the subjugation of Hungary, the most reactionary measures were carried out, the rights of nationalities ignored, and a bureaucratic centralization was restored. But neither Italy nor Hungary was conquered. The Emperor then waged a successful war with Prussia against Denmark, but in a dispute over the spoils the allies engaged in a war which ended by Austria's crushing defeat at Sadowa (Königsgratz) in 1866.

The Empress Elizabeth (daughter of Duke Maximilian of Bavaria), whom Francis Joseph had married in 1854, was murdered in 1898, and on the death of the Emperor's only son Rudolf in 1899, Archduke Francis Ferdinand (son of Archduke Karl Ludwig, the Emperor's nephew), became heir to the crown. But he and the Archduchess (Countess Sophie Chotek) were assassinated on June 28, 1914, and since Francis Ferdinand had renounced at marriage the rights of the future children to the crown, the succession passed to the Emperor's nephew, Karl Francis Joseph (born August 17, 1887; married Princess Zita of Parma on October 21, 1911). The Archduke and Archduchess have two children.

Francis Joseph is one of the most remarkable figures of Europe by reason of his great age and ability to hold together the diverse races of his empire. He is distinguished by his personal love for his people, his sterling sense of justice, charm and frankness of manner, his sense of duty and responsibility to his people, and the democratic manner with which he receives the visits of prince and peasant alike. His love for and generosity to the poor have won for him the title of "Our Franz."

A singular fatality seems to have followed this house, and the reign of Emperor Francis Joseph has seen the culmination of the tragedies that have fallen upon the family. The Emperor was barely on the throne five years, when the knife of an assassin inflicted a serious wound, a sinister omen of what was to come. His brother, Maximilian, accepted the title of Emperor of Mexico, only to fall a victim on June 16, 1867. Archduke William Francis fell from his horse in 1894 and died from the injuries then received. Archduke John of Tuscany renounced his rank, and under the name of John Orth, disappeared with his yacht off the coast of South America and was never heard of. His cousin and two of his sisters-in-law met violent deaths. His son, the Crown Prince Rudolf, was found dead in his castle at Meyerling on Jan. 30, 1889, and the assassination of his wife and nephew summed up the story of his sorrows.





THE LATE ARCHDUKE FERDINAND AND HIS FAMILY  
THE ASSASSINATION OF THE ARCHDUKE AND THE ARCHDUCHESS  
LED TO THE PRESENT EUROPEAN SITUATION

#### HOUSE OF HAPSBURG

The Hapsburg family takes its name from Castle Hapsburg in the Swiss canton of Argau, and the title of Count of Hapsburg was first assumed by Werner I (d. 1096). Count Rudolf was elected Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire in 1273. He acquired Austria, and became the founder of the imperial line (See HISTORY OF AUSTRIA), which has given sovereigns to the Holy Roman Empire, Austria and Spain, and is connected with nearly every royal house in Europe. Through the Pragmatic Sanction Maria Theresa was enabled to assume the government on the extinction of the male line, and in 1745 her husband, Duke Franz of Lorraine-Tuscany, was elected emperor; thus was founded the present imperial house of Hapsburg-Lorraine. The story of the Hapsburgs is virtually that of Austria from the 13th century.



THE CROWN PRINCE AND HIS SON

## HISTORY



Austria was first inhabited by the Taurisci (a Celtic people, then successively by the Norici (who were conquered by the Romans about 14 B. C.), the Boii, Vandals, Goths, Huns, Longobards and Avars. Charlemagne expelled the latter, and made the territory a margraviate, called the Eastern mark or Ostreich. The Hungarians invaded in 900, but were conquered (955) by Emperor Otto I, who reunited Ostreich with the German realm. The Emperor appointed (983) Leopold of Babenberg as margrave. This prince conquered a large portion of Hungary, and under his successors more territory was added, and the margraviate received important privileges and was made a duchy. On the extinction of the Babenberg house in 1246, Ottokar, King of Bohemia, after some fighting obtained the Austrian lands; to these he added Styria (by conquest in 1260) and Carinthia and Carniola (by inheritance in 1269). But in the war brought on (1276) by his refusal to recognize Emperor

Rudolf of Hapsburg, he was defeated, and Rudolf gave Austria, Styria and Carinthia in fief to his sons Albert and Rudolf, thus laying the foundation of the future greatness of the Hapsburgs. Under the Hapsburg policy Austria grew in power. Albert III acquired the Tyrol; Albert V secured Hungary and Bohemia, and, by his marriage with the daughter of Emperor Sigismund, was elected Emperor in 1438. From this time the Hapsburgs held the imperial crown, excepting for one short period, until the downfall of the Holy Roman Empire in 1806. With Ladislas, Albert's son, the Austrian Hapsburg line became extinct (1457), and its possessions went to the Styrian line. Under Frederick III Austria was made an archduchy, and through the marriage of Maximilian I with Mary of Burgundy the Netherlands were acquired in 1477. In 1516 a Hapsburg succeeded to the Spanish throne, in the person of Charles I (son of Philip the Fair and Joanna of Castile and grandson of Maximilian I of Austria). In 1519 this Charles became German Emperor as Charles V. In 1521 he resigned the Austrian possessions to his brother, Archduke Ferdinand, and Ferdinand, through his marriage, became King of Bohemia and was chosen by the nobles King of Hungary. But the National Party chose another candidate, and, owing to the great wars for the succession, in which Turkey aided Hungary, Austria did not obtain undisputed possession of Hungary until the 18th century. In 1556 Charles V abdicated in favor of Ferdinand. Ferdinand II during the Thirty Years' War made a last fruitless attempt to bring all Germany under Austrian rule, and succeeding rulers, realizing the impossibility of such a plan, have devoted themselves to purely Austrian interests. Leopold I, by his severity, provoked the Hungarian rebellion, and in 1687 forced the Hungarians to make their kingdom hereditary in the Hapsburg family. Prince Eugene forced the Turks to resign (1690) the country between the Danube and the Theiss, and Austria also obtained Transylvania.

The claims of Archduke Charles brought Austria into the War of the Spanish Succession, and from the Peace of Utrecht (1714) she received the Spanish Netherlands, Milan, Mantua, Naples and Sicily. Then followed periods of curtailment. By the Peace of Vienna (1736), Naples and Sicily went to Spain and part of Milan to Sardinia in return for Parma and Piacenza; by the Peace



of Belgrade (1739), Belgrade, the adjoining Servian lands, and the Austrian parts of Wallachia and Bosnia went to Turkey; by the Austrian Succession War (which broke out when Maria Theresa assumed the government, the male line having become extinct in 1740), Prussia obtained Silesia; and by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, Austria lost Parma, Piacenza and Guastalla. The Seven Years' War, and Maria Theresa's fruitless attempt to regain Silesia, drained Austria's blood, and the years following were devoted to fostering industry and commerce, encouraging education and improving the condition of the serfs. These reforms were carried on by Joseph II, who, however, in his zeal disregarded national prejudices, and thereby provoked the revolt in the Netherlands and aroused discontent in Hungary. In the first partition of Poland Austria acquired Galicia and Lodomeria, and the Porte ceded Bukowina in 1777.

By the Treaty of Campo Formio, which closed Austria's war with France (1792-97), Austria lost the Netherlands and Lombardy, but acquired Venetian Istria and Dalmatia. In 1804 the Emperor declared himself hereditary Emperor of Austria, taking the title of Kaiser, and united all his dominions in one empire. The war of 1805 against Napoleon resulted in the disastrous defeat at Austerlitz and the Treaty of Pressburg, by which Austria lost Venice, Istria, Dalmatia, the Tyrol and part of Suabia. Following this treaty came the establishment of the Rhine Confederation and the abolition of the Holy Roman Empire, when the Hapsburgs lost their title of 500 years.

Austria's heroic attempt in 1809 to defeat Napoleon was crushed in the battle of Wagram, and the Peace of Vienna deprived her of part of her hereditary dominions. In 1812, after the close of the successful war of the anti-Napoleon coalition, Austria regained Lombardy, her Venetian territory, the Tyrol and the possessions taken by Napoleon in 1809. During the restoration period she played an important part in German politics, exercised the presidency of the re-organized German Confederation, and joined the Holy Alliance. Her statesman, Prince Metternich, stifled every constitutional movement, and repressed every aspiration toward nationality of the peoples composing the heterogeneous Austrian domains. Through this policy revolutions in Lombardy and Hungary were provoked, which, however, were quelled, Russia aiding in the subjugation of Hungary. The war with Prussia ended with the Austrian defeat at Sadowa (Königsgratz, 1866), and Austria had to cede Venetia to Italy; the war with Italy (1859) with the loss of Lombardy. The relations of Austria and Hungary were then settled, and in June, 1867, Francis Joseph I was crowned King of Hungary. The dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary thus came into being. During the last half century Austrian statesmen have devoted their attention mainly to the

commercial development of their country, while earnestly endeavoring to fuse into one nation the numerous peoples grouped within the boundaries of the Dual Monarchy.

According to the *Ausgleich* (or Compromise) made in 1867, Austria and Hungary have each a separate constitution and a separate parliament, but confederate for imperial purposes (army, navy and finance affairs) and for the conduct of foreign affairs. Legislative power relating to common affairs (including the voting of money) is exercised by the Parliaments of both states, but the duty of examining the requirements of the common services is entrusted to the Delegations, of which there are two. The members of the Delegations are appointed for one year, and are summoned annually by the emperor alternately at Vienna and Budapest.

The constitution of Hungary dates from about 891, when the Magyars had possession, and the first King, St. Stephen, was crowned in 1000. The first charter (*Bulla Aurea*), granted in 1222 by King Andrew II, defined the government as an aristocratic monarchy. After having been repeatedly suspended and even forfeited (1849), the Hungarian Constitution was restored in 1867.

Austria has an area of 115,882 sq. miles and a population of 28,995,844. The population is divided among Germans (about 9,000,000), Bohemians (6,000,000), Poles (4,000,000), Ruthenians (3,000,000), Slovenes (1,000,000), Serbs and Croats (800,000), Italians and Ladin (800,000), Roumanians (300,000), Magyars (10,000) and Greeks, French, etc. Half the population is engaged in agriculture, and about 200,000 in mining.

Hungary includes an area of 125,609 sq. miles, and has a population (including Croatia and Slavonia) of 21,030,000. The population is divided among Magyars (about 9,000,000), Germans (2,000,000), Slovaks (2,000,000), Roumanians (3,000,000), Croats (1,000,000), Serbs and various foreign residents. 68.4 per cent. of the people are engaged in agriculture; 12.8 per cent. in manufacturing, and mining employs about 80,000. The exports from Austria-Hungary in 1913 amounted to \$575,625,000, and the imports to \$707,065,000.

Liechtenstein, a principality between Austrian Tyrol and the Rhine (area, 65 sq. miles; population, 9,500) is administered directly from Vienna.

Bosnia-Herzegovina (area, 19,768 sq. miles; population 1,962,411) is administered by Austria-Hungary, having been formally annexed to the Empire in 1908.



DRAGOONS



COUNT VON BERTHOLD  
AUSTRIAN-HUNGARIAN  
FOREIGN MINISTER



BARON KONRAD VON  
HÖTZENDORF, CHIEF  
OF THE AUSTRIAN  
STAFF



GENERAL RITTER VON KROBAT-  
KIN, MINISTER OF WAR



ADMIRAL VON HAUS, INSPECTOR  
OF THE NAVY



HUSSARS

## THE ARMY

The Landsknecht infantry was the mainstay of the imperial armies in the 16th century. Rudolph II formed a standing force about 1600, but relied upon the enlistment system for the bulk of his armies. The Thirty Years' Wars (1618-1648) produced the permanence of service which led to the rise of standing armies, and at its close Austria had 19 infantry, 6 cuirassier and 1 dragoon regiments. Wallenstein was the first to raise a distinctly imperial army owing no duty but to the sovereign.

The wars of Austria against France and the Turks, together with the two Turkish Wars and the three great struggles against Frederick the Great, led to a continuous increase in her army and the long period of active service caused the development of its organization. Thanks to this training Austria could oppose the French Revolutionary forces (1792) as their most formidable enemy, and prove its efficiency in such a battle as that of Neerwinden (1793). But after Napoleon's victories, the army lost confidence in itself, as well as its leaders, and in the whole system under which it was trained. This old system was, however, abolished after 1805, and a new one was reconstructed on French lines by Archduke Charles. Although the re-organization was not yet completed, Austria entered the War of Liberation with well-drilled armies exceedingly greater in numbers than those of the Wars of the Revolution.

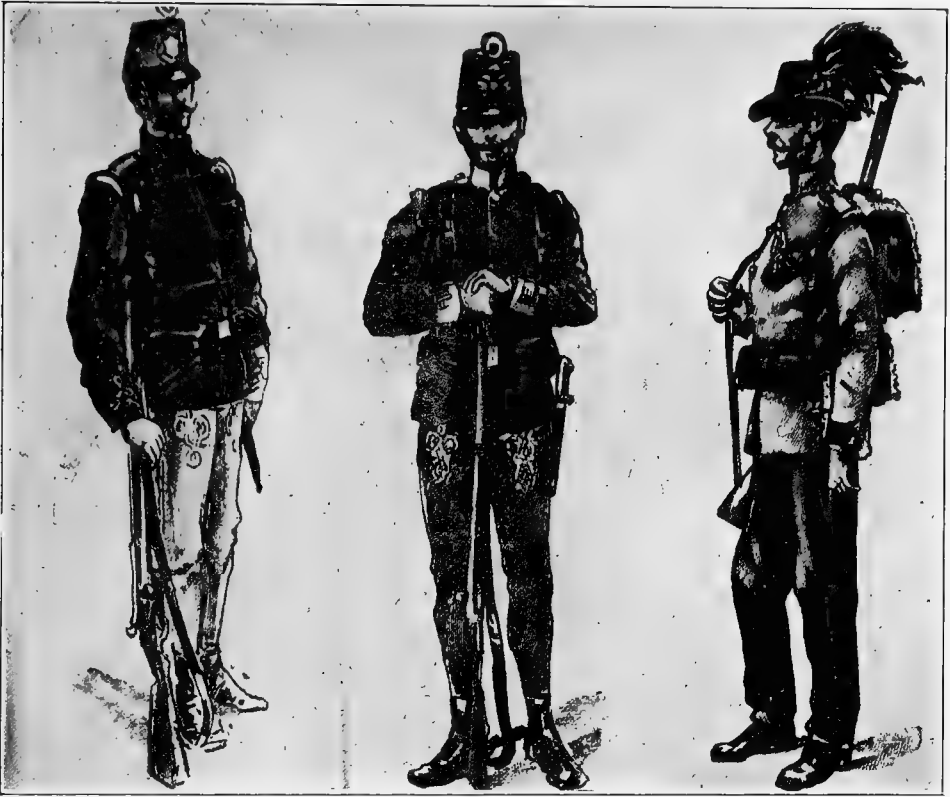




FIFTY YEARS AGO: FIELD-MARSHAL AND HIS STAFF



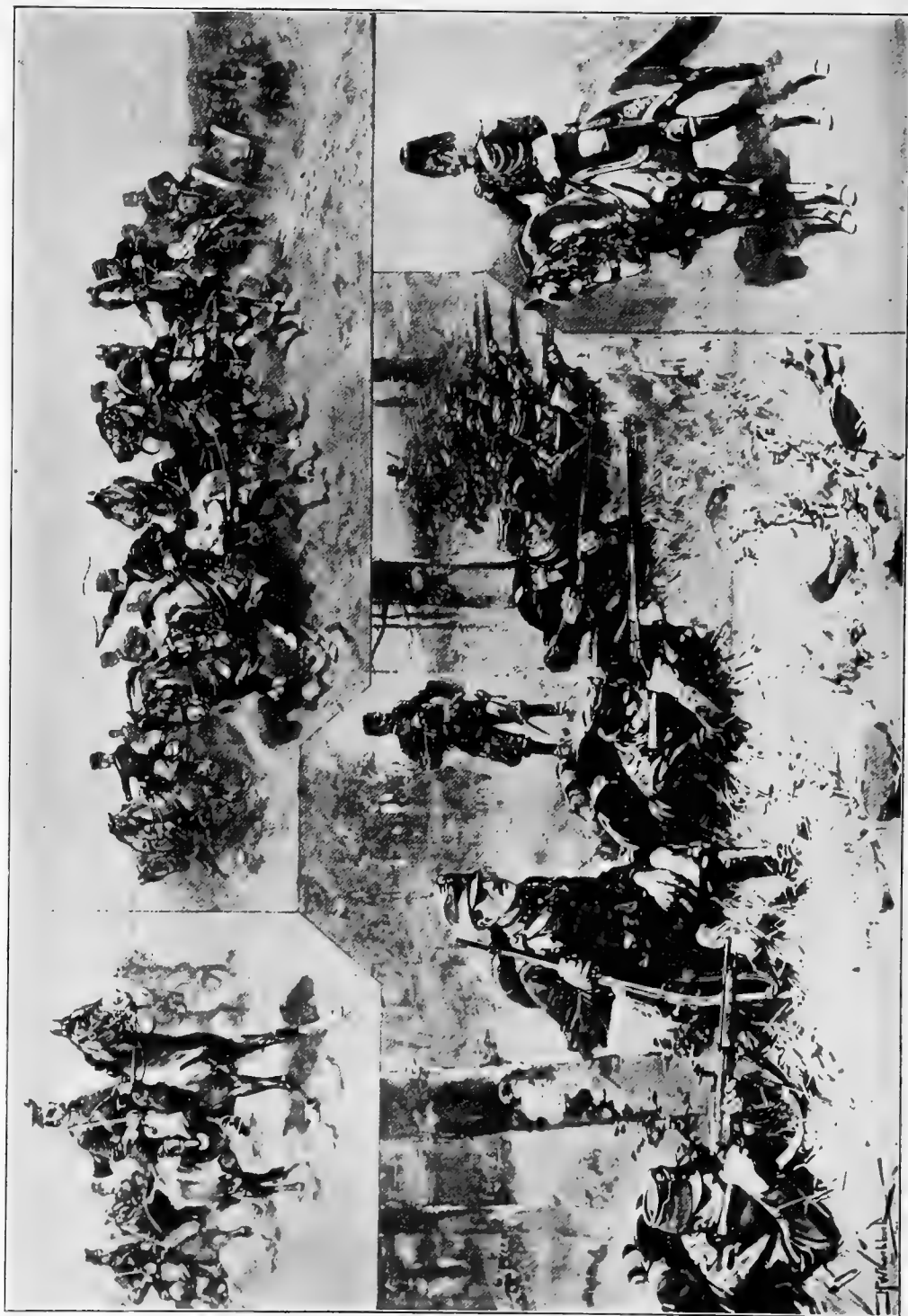
CAVALRY IN NAPOLEON'S TIME



INFANTRY AND JÄGER

After the fall of Napoleon, Austria's hold on Italy necessitated the maintenance of a large army of occupation. This army, particularly its cavalry, was admittedly the best in Europe. Following that time (1845-1850) the army was employed in dynastic wars, and the conscription was modified by substitution. When the war of 1859 resulted unfavorably, the army lost confidence as it had done in 1805. The result of the war and of the constitutional changes of this time was the readoption of the principles of 1806-13, the substitution of conscription and long service by universal service for 3 years, and a thorough reform in the methods of command and staff work. University graduates serve only one year, and usually form the officers of the reserve force.

Austria-Hungary maintains a common army (K. und K.) which is derived from both kingdoms, and which has a common organization. The special or second line armies (K. K.) are the *Landwehr* in Austria and the *Honved* in Hungary, which are fully organized in time of peace, and are on a national basis, and the *Landsturm* (composed of older men). Certain parts of the Empire (as in Bosnia-Herzegovina) maintain special recruiting service and enlist independent troops under their own regulations. On July 1, 1912, a law was passed providing for re-organization increase in the army. Military service is compulsory from the age of 21 to 42, and the soldier spends 2 years



TROOPS MANOEUVERING IN THE FIELD



UHLAN

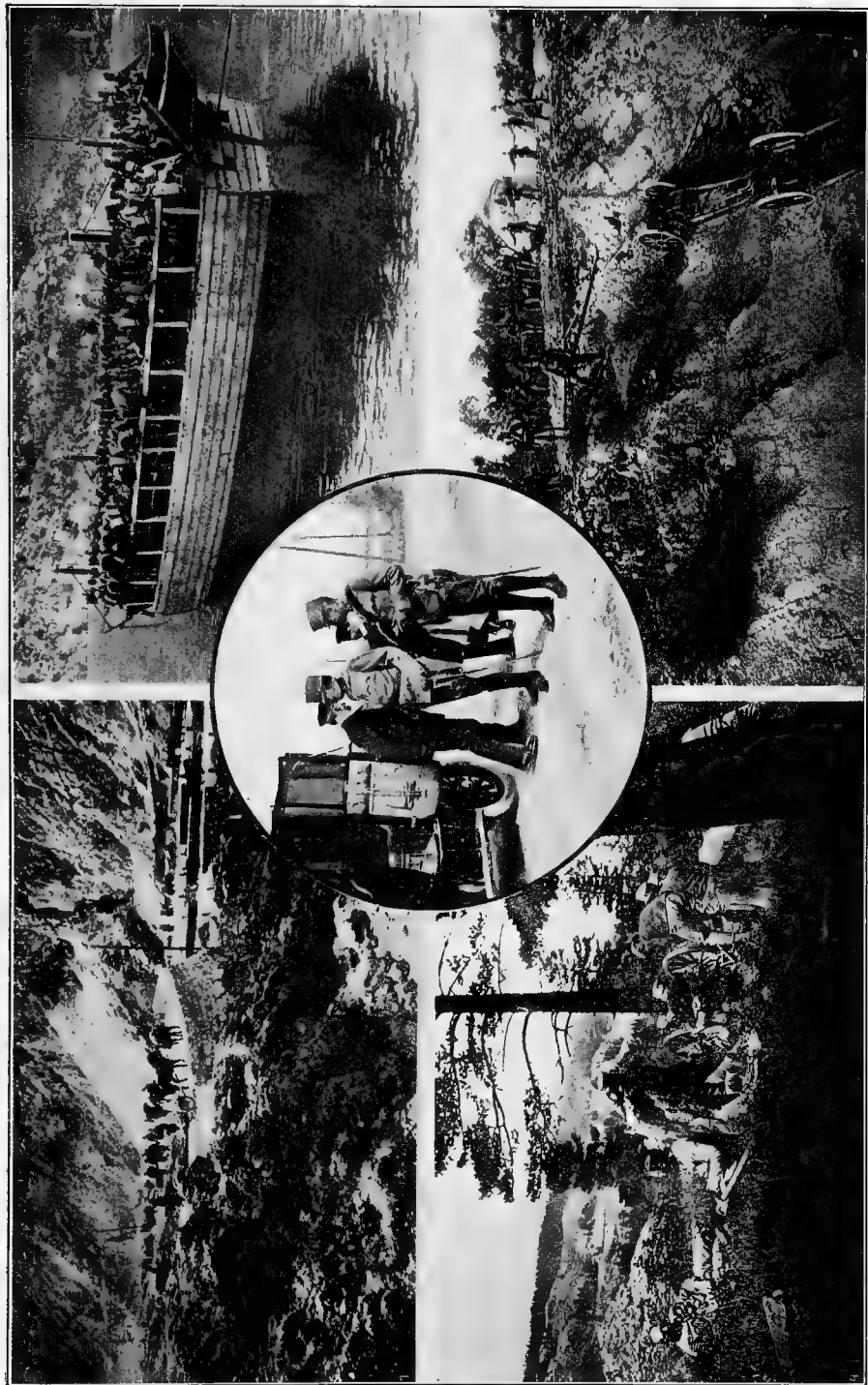
in the active army (3 in the cavalry and artillery), 10 in the reserve and 9 in the Landsturm. The Empire is divided into 16 army corps, as follows:

	K. und K.	K. K.	Honved
Infantry regiments .....	102	37	32
Bosnia Herzegovina .....	4		
Tyrolean Chasseurs .....	4		
Feldjägerbataillions .....	26		
Landesschützen .....		3	
Total .....	136	40	32
Cavalry regiments			
Uhlans .....	11	6	
Hussars .....	16		10
Dragoons .....	15		
Tyrolean .....		1	
Dalmatian .....		1	
Total .....	42	8	10
Artillery regiments			
Field 92 } .....	106	16	2
Fortress 14 } .....			
Divisions .....			8
Total .....	106	16	10



## EIGHTEENTH CENTURY SOLDIERS

The peace strength of the army, as organized in 1913, is: Common army, 339,366; Austrian Landwehr, 50,544; Hungarian Honved, 38,529; Bosnian-Herzegovina troops, 6,618. The war strength as provided for by the law of 1913 is: Common army, 1,360,000; Austrian Landwehr, 240,000; Honved, 220,000; total, 1,820,000. This total could be increased to well over 3,000,000 by utilizing all classes of the Landsturm, including trained and untrained men. Austria-Hungary's expenditure for armament during 1913-14 amounted to \$172,939,606.



ARMY MANOEUVRES AND IN CENTER THE LATE ARCHDUKE FRANCIS FERDINAND





ARTILLERY: AN 8 CENTIMETRE FIELD PIECE

ENGINEERS BUILD-  
ING A BRIDGE FOR  
TRANSPORT OF  
TROOPS

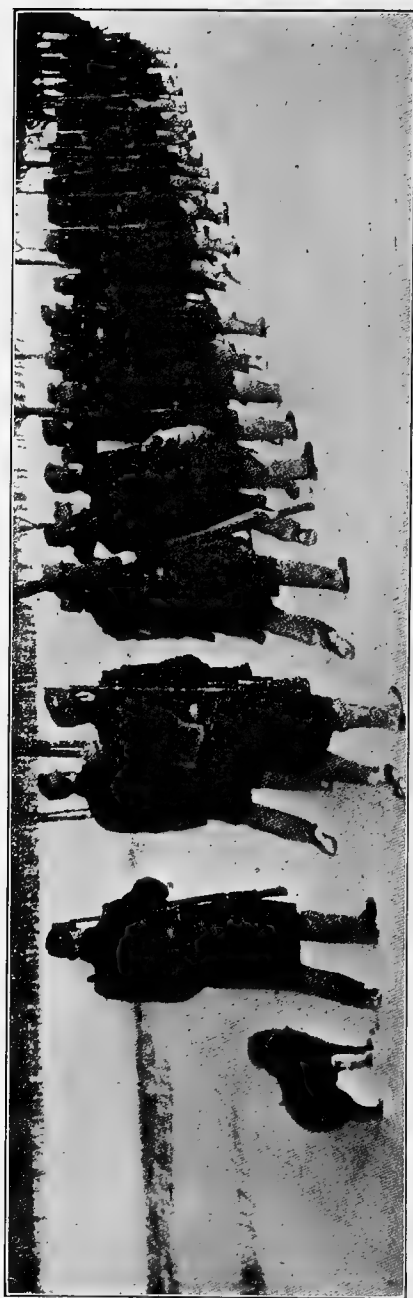


HIS MAJESTY'S  
LIFE GUARDS





ARTILLERY AFTER A MANOEUVRE



INFANTRY MARCHING BACK TO THE CASERNE



BOSNIAN HERZEGOVINAN INFANTRY



INFANTRY ON PARADE



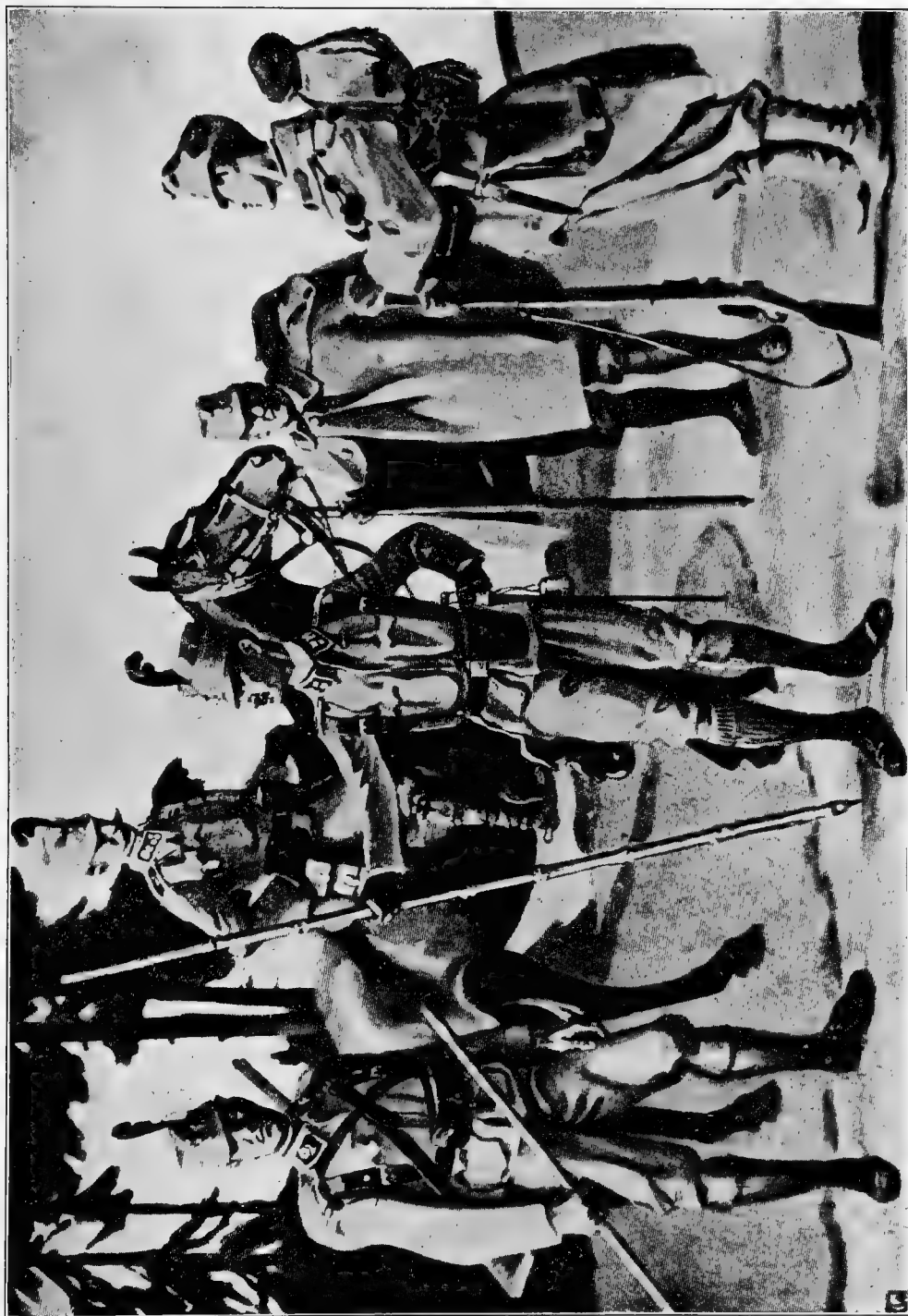
ARTILLERY: 10 CENTIMETRE HOWITZERS



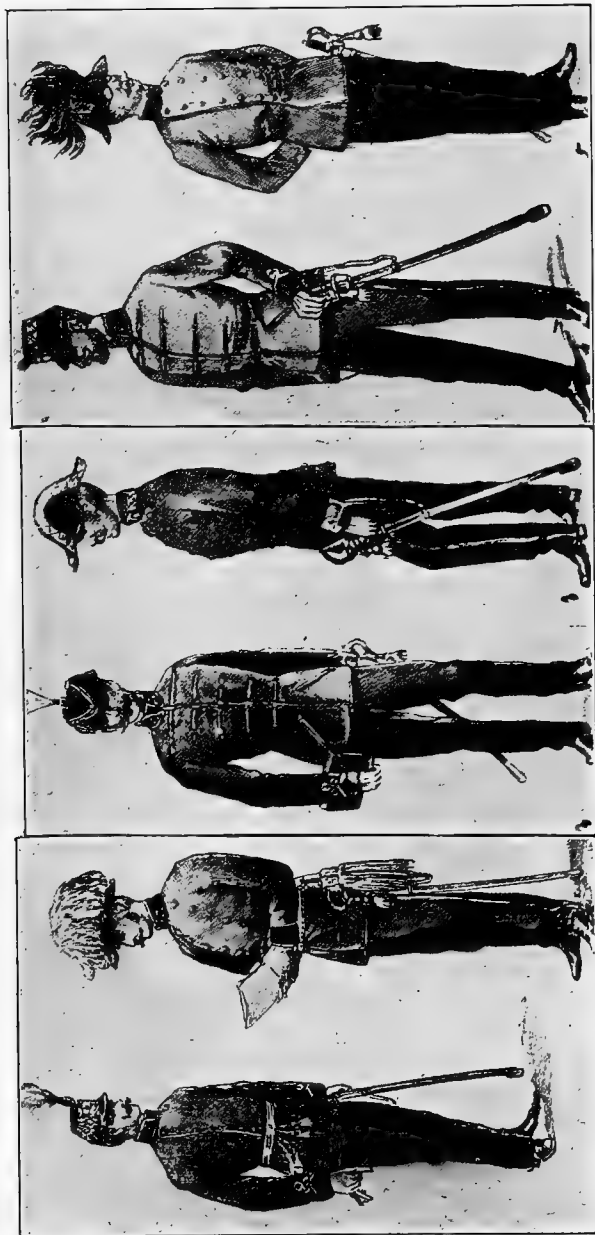
WINTER MANOEUVRES OF THE INFANTRY



THE EMPEROR AND GENERAL STAFF



MOUNTAIN INFANTRY

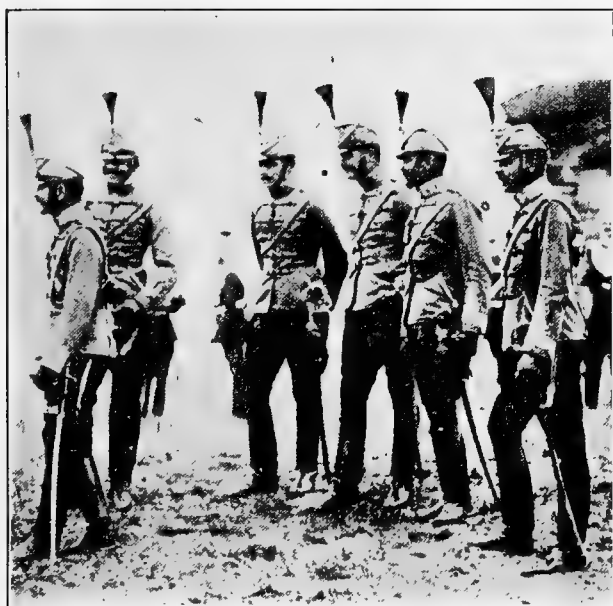


GENERAL STAFF OFFICERS      OFFICERS OF THE COMMISSARIATE      OFFICERS OF THE MEDICAL STAFF

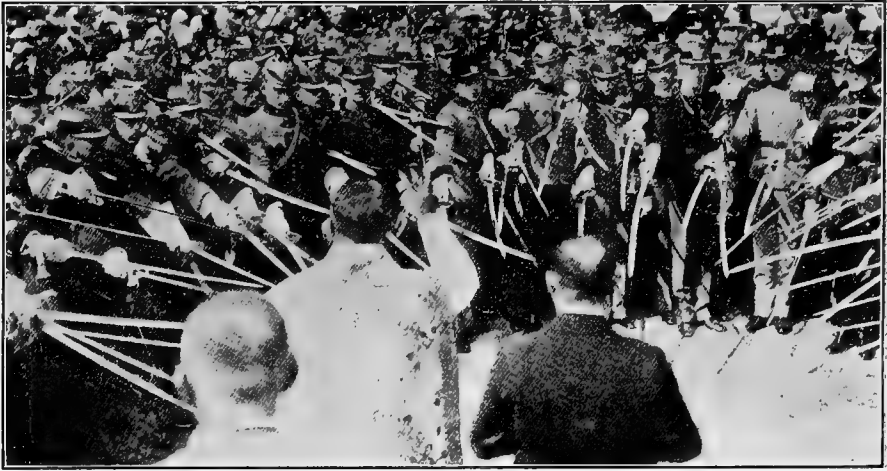
UNIFORMS OF THE HUNGARIAN HONVED



A REST AFTER MANOEUVRING

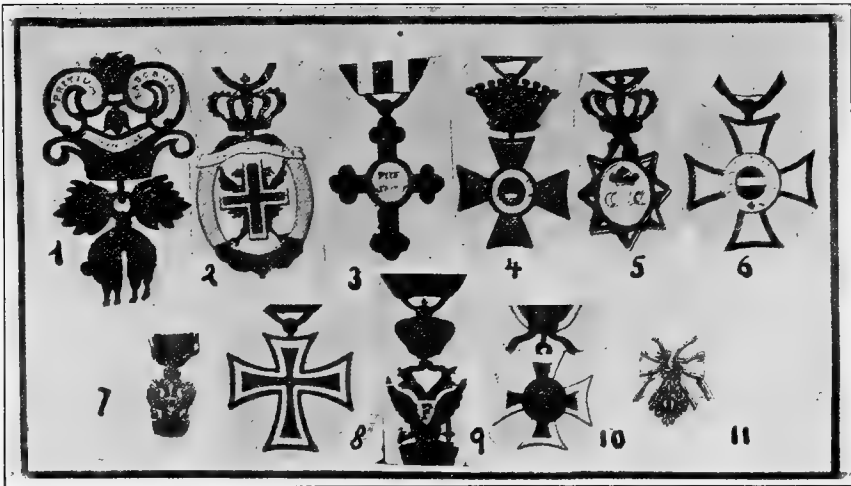


HUSSAR OFFICERS



BLESSING THE SWORDS

Before the cadets are promoted to the rank of officers in the army, the chaplain of the Military Academy extends to them the oath of allegiance to God and Kaiser, and they solemnly pledge themselves to the service of the Fatherland.



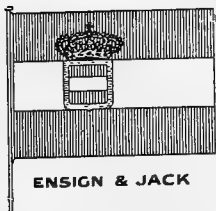
1. Order of the Golden Fleece. 2. Order of the Star. 3. Cross of Honor.
4. Order of St. Stephen. 5. Order of Elizabeth Theresa. 6. Order of Maria Theresa.
7. Order of the Iron Crown. 8. Teutonic Order. 9. Iron Crown and Cross. 10. Order of Leopold. 11. Order of Elizabeth.



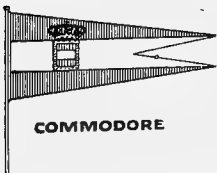
## THE NAVY



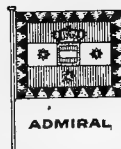
Although of all the great European powers Austria has the shortest coastline, consisting of the eastern shore of the Adriatic, its navy is in power of its fighting ships 7th in rank among the navies of the world. It was organized chiefly for coast defence, and for many years no important new vessels were added. In 1893 the armored cruiser *Kaiserin Maria Theresa* was launched, and three small battleships were commenced. Since then the annual building programme has steadily increased. As re-organized in 1901, the navy department forms an autonomous section in the ministry of war, under the control of a vice admiral; An Admiral is inspector-in-chief of the fleet and entire navy and represents the



ENSIGN & JACK



COMMODORE



ADMIRAL



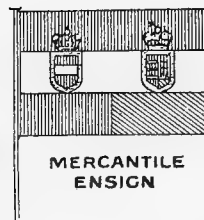
VICE  
ADMIRAL



REAR  
ADMIRAL



IMPERIAL STANDARD



MERCANTILE  
ENSIGN

**Black**

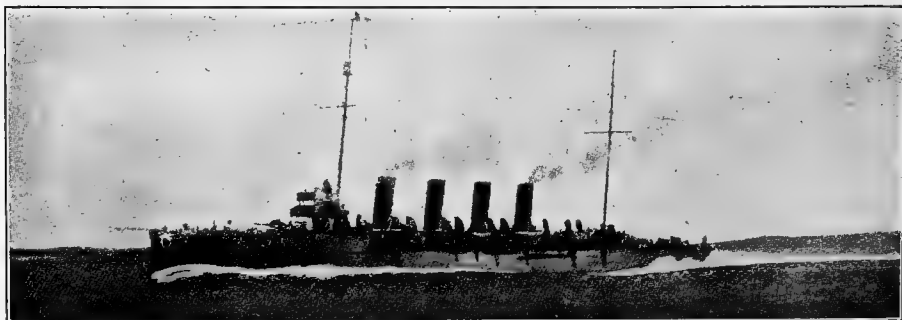
**White**

**Yellow**

**Red**

**Green**





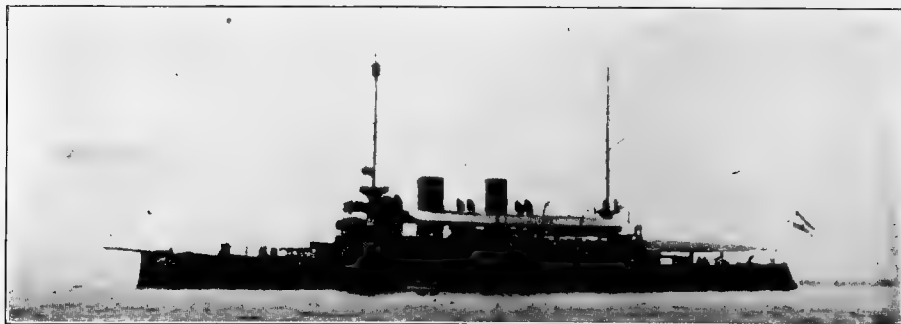
FIRST CLASS CRUISER "ADMIRAL SPAUN"

minister of war in the discussions of the navy budget. Enlistment is by conscription for a term of 4 years; university graduates serve only one year and usually become officers of the reserve force.

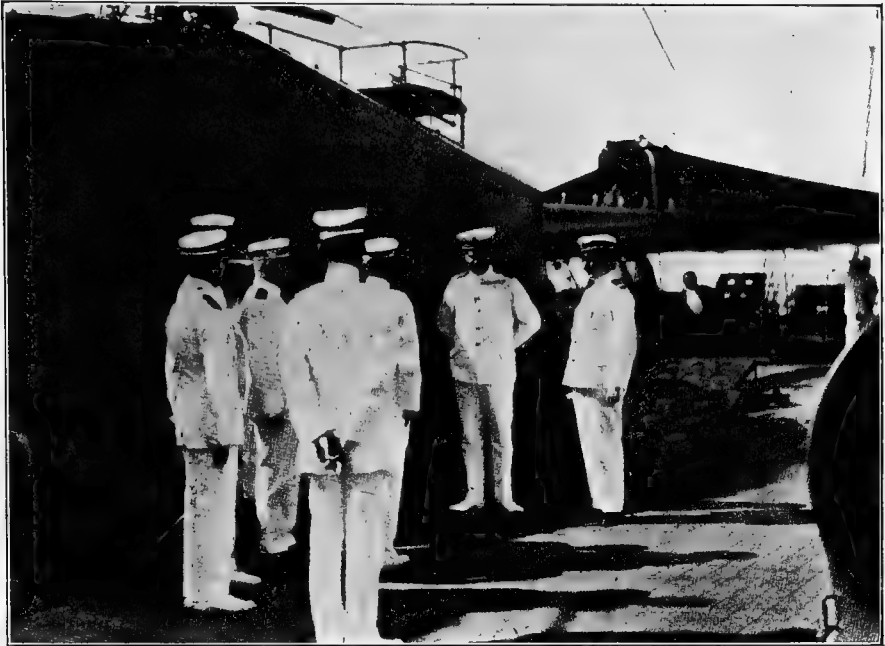
In addition to the coast defence, there is a flotilla of monitors in the Danube. The fleet, which is maintained in a high state of efficiency, has a strength of:

	Effective end of	
	1913	1914
Dreadnoughts .....	2	3
Pre-dreadnoughts .....	12	12
Armored cruisers .....	3	3
Cruisers .....	9	11
Torpedo gunboats .....	7	7
Gunboats for the Danube .....	6	8
Torpedo boats for the Danube .....	8	8
Destroyers .....	18	18
Torpedo boats .....	58	63
Submarines .....	6	6
Hydroplanes .....	22	50

The *personnel* of the navy consists of: 907 officers and cadets; 1,513 mechanics, engineers, etc.; about 18,000 sailors; the grand total, including reserves, amounts to 37,000. There are naval air services of hydro-aeroplanes at Pola, Sebenico and Cattaro. The navy expenditure for 1913-14 amounted to \$33,002,755, an increase of 143.2 per cent over that of 1907-08.



CRUISER "MARIA THERESA"



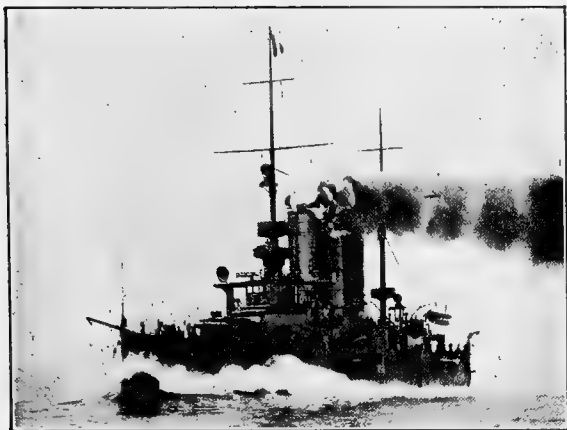
THE LATE ARCHDUKE FRANCIS FERDINAND ON BOARD THE  
FLAGSHIP



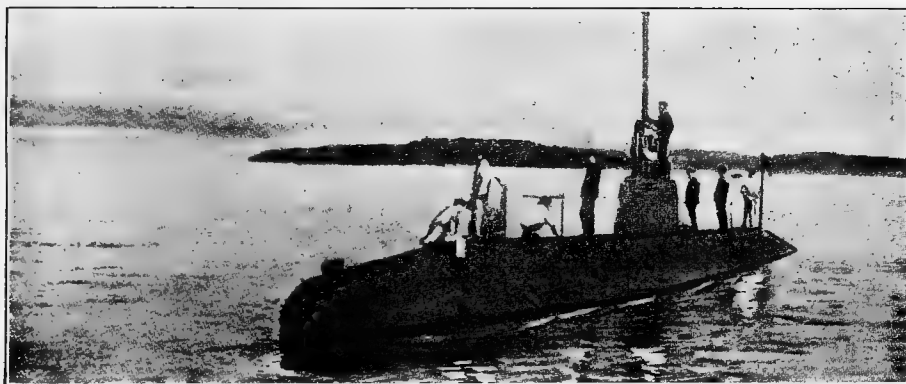
BATTLESHIP "BUDAPEST"



MANOEUVRES OF THE DREADNOUGHT "PRINCE EUGENE"  
FIRING A BROADSIDE OF 12-INCH GUNS

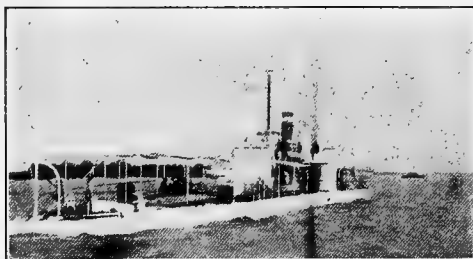


BATTLESHIP "ERZEHERZOG  
FRANCIS FERDINAND"



SUBMARINE "V 5"

MONITOR OF THE  
DANUBE FLEET

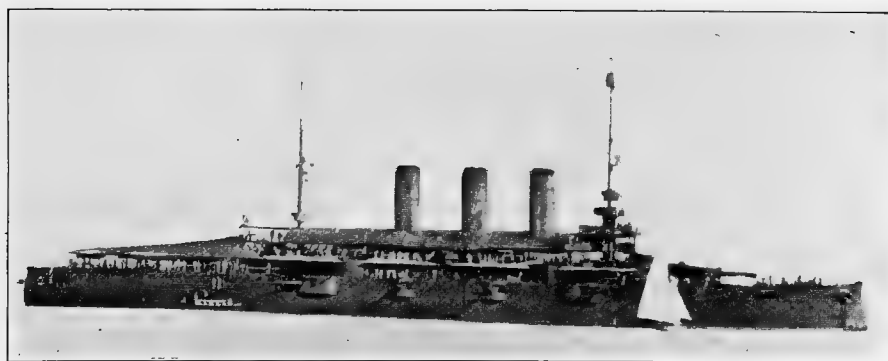




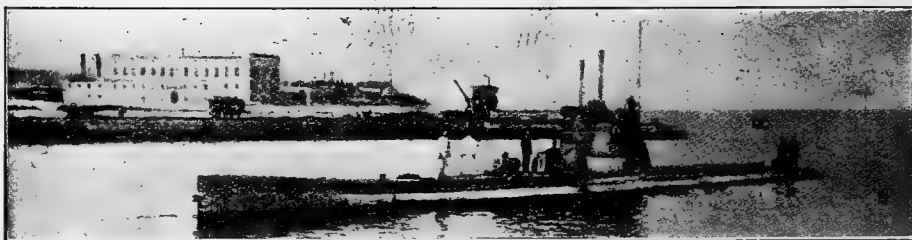
DREADNOUGHT "VIRIBUS UNITIS"



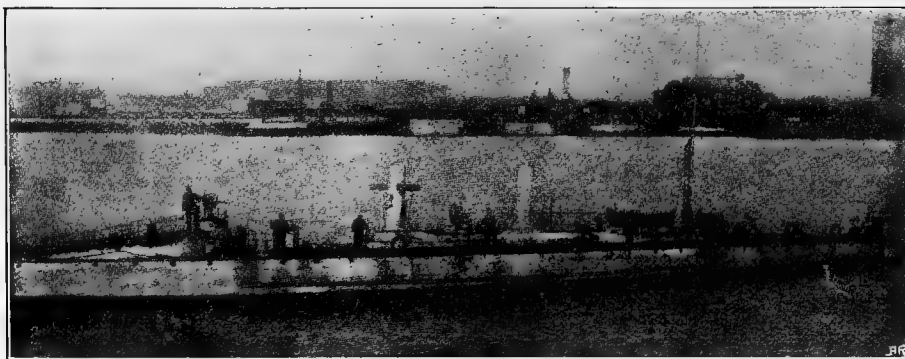
BATTLESHIP "HAPSBURG"



BATTLESHIP "ERZEHERZOG CARL"



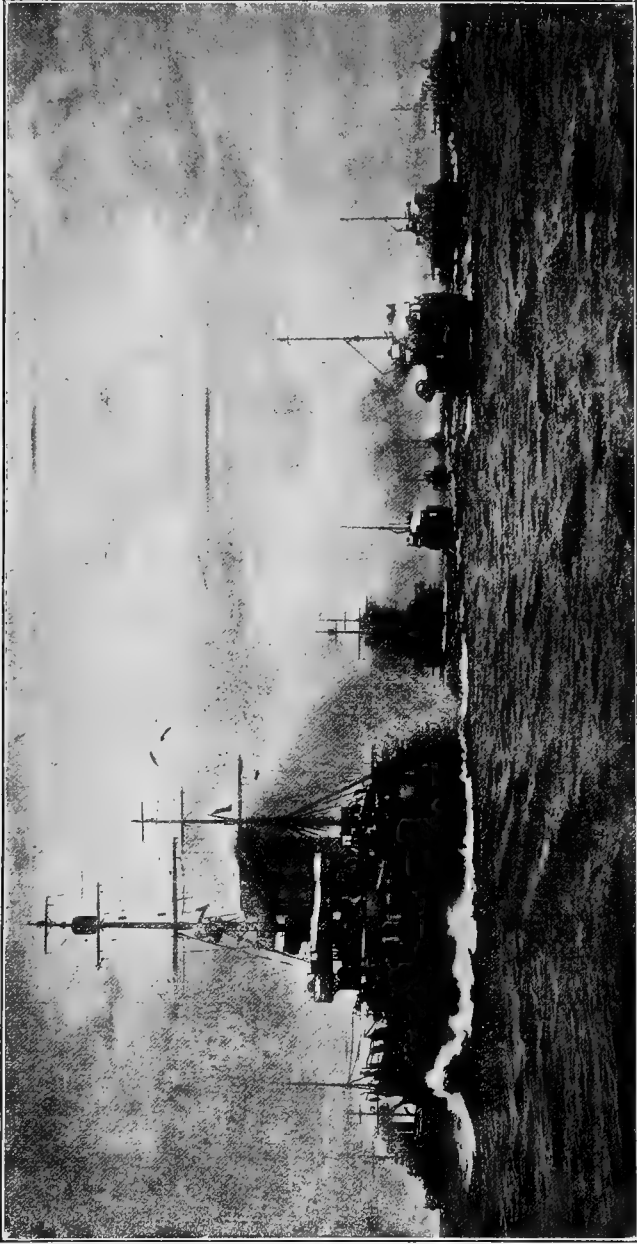
SUBMARINE "U 3"



COAST TORPEDO BOAT "NO. 13"

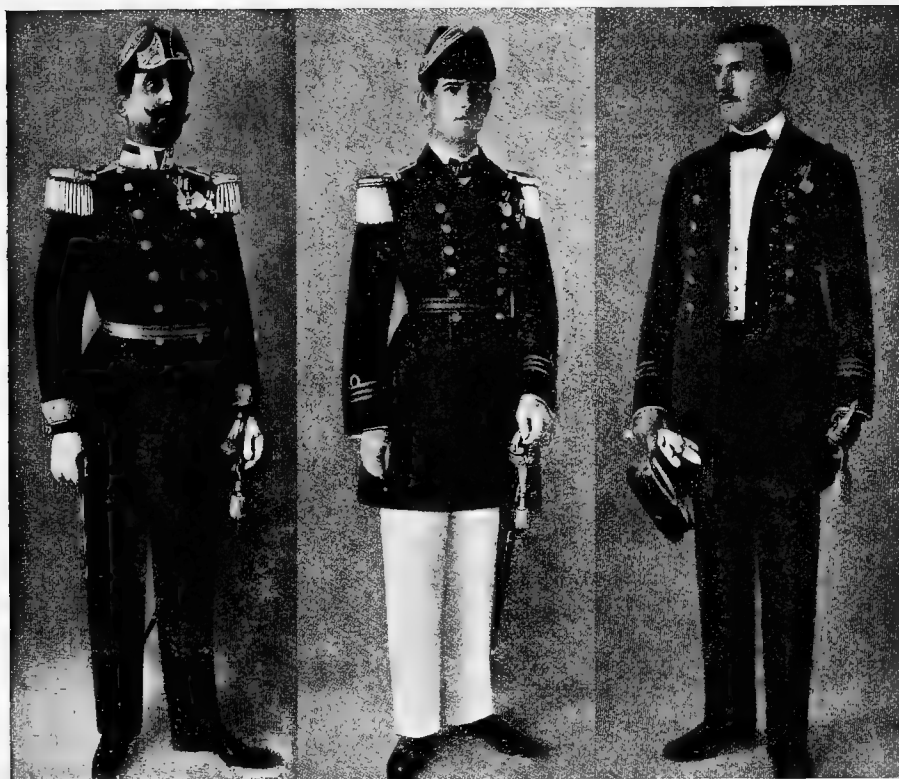


AVIATOR CORPS

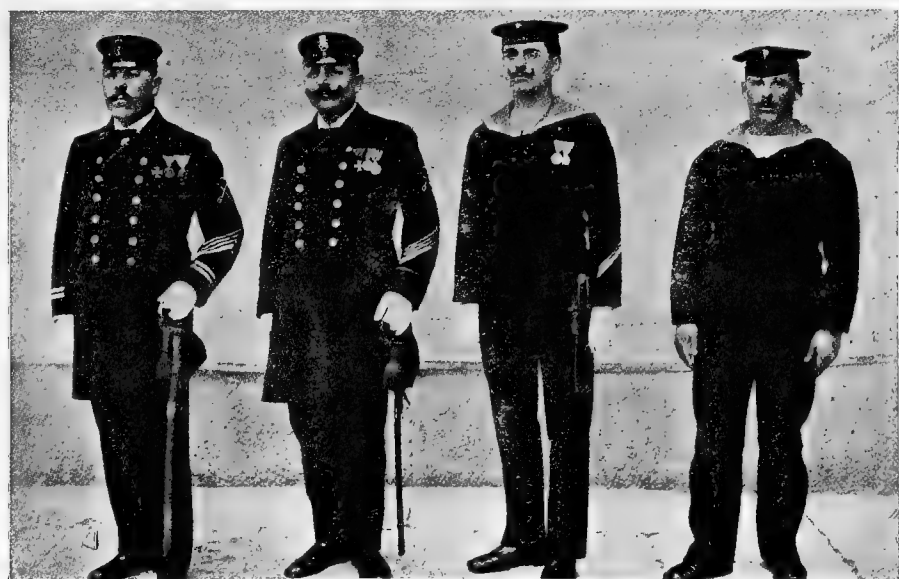


FLEET STEAMING OUT TO SEA





OFFICERS



UNDER-OFFICERS AND MARINES



The  
British Empire





GEORGE V





KING GEORGE AND QUEEN MARY

## GEORGE V

Prince George Frederick Ernest Albert, the second son of King Edward VII and Queen Alexandra, was born on June 3, 1865. He entered the navy when twelve years old, and was successively promoted to the ranks of midshipman (1883), lieutenant (1885), and commander (1891). On the death of the Duke of Clarence (1892) he became heir to the throne, and took his seat in the House of Lords as Duke of York. His marriage was celebrated on July 6, 1893, to Princess Victoria Mary of Teck, known as Princess May, who had been betrothed to the Duke of Clarence. In 1901 he attained the rank of rear admiral and was appointed Colonel-in-chief of the Royal Marine Forces. On the accession of Edward VII, Prince George left the navy and assumed certain duties of state. He succeeded to the throne on May 6, 1910. Through his influence the Accession Act of 1910 was passed, which omitted from the accession declara-



THE PRINCE OF WALES

tion the phrases long resented by Catholics. During his visit to India (Dec., 1911), important changes were made in the Indian administrative system, and the capital was transferred from Calcutta to Delhi.



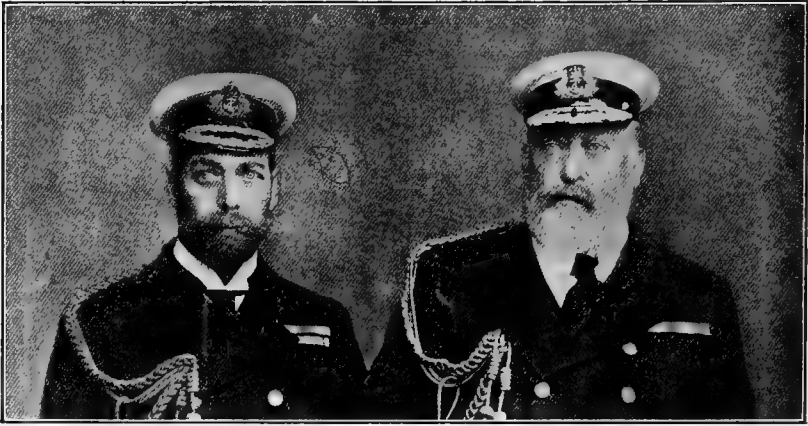
THE LATE KING EDWARD VII AND QUEEN ALEXANDRA

Their majesties have six children: Prince Edward Albert (born on June 23, 1894), the heir apparent, is now serving at the front with his regiment; Prince Albert Frederick (born Dec. 14, 1895), is serving with the fleet in the North Sea; Princess Mary, the only daughter (born April 25, 1897); Prince Henry William (born March 31, 1900); Prince George Edward (born Dec. 20, 1912); and Prince John Charles (born July 12, 1905).

#### KING EDWARD

While Prince of Wales, King Edward became very popular with his people, and won a reputation as a diplomat and peacemaker. At his accession, he directed his efforts to maintain the existing peace of Europe and by advantageous alliances sought to strengthen the foreign relations of his country. He greatly admired the French, spending much of his time at Paris, and to his personal efforts were due the cordial relations between England and France and the formation of the Triple Entente.





GEORGE V AND THE LATE EDWARD VII



PRINCESS MARY



PRINCE ALBERT FREDERICK



PRINCE HENRY WILLIAM



## HOUSE OF GUELPH



GEORGE I

About the middle of the 5th century the name Wepf or Guelph, first occurs, such being the title of the leader of the Scyrrî, a Gothic tribe, which was then in possession of Noricum (ancient Rhoetia). In 590 a Guelph commanded the Boiararii under Childebert, King of the Franks, but for a century afterwards the name occurs chiefly among the Bavarian nation, the nobles of Lombardy and the court of France.

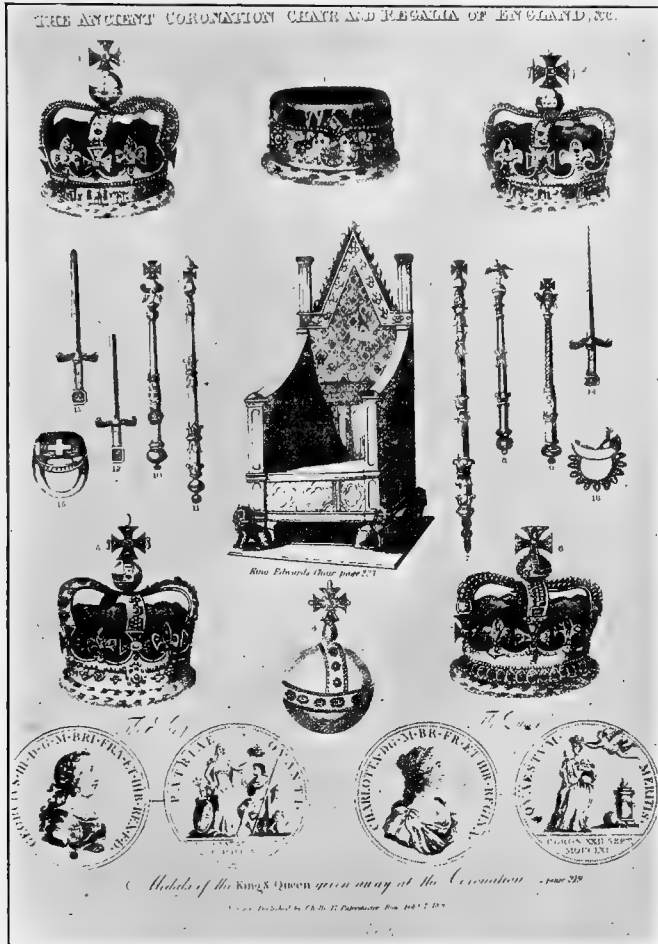
Guelph IV married Irmitrude, daughter of Frederick of Luxemburg, and niece of Cunigonde, Empress of Henry II. His son received from Emperor Henry III the Duchy of Carinthia and the Marquisate of Verona, but with him the male line died out. His nephew became the founder of the younger line. Henry the Black succeeded to the Guelph possessions in 1120, and by his marriage with Wufilda, eldest daughter of the

Magnus of Saxony, obtained half of the latter's hereditary dominions, including Lüneburg. His son, Henry the Proud, married the daughter of the Emperor Lothair, thereby obtaining lands in Brunswick and the Duchy of Saxony. The consequent power brought the Guelphs into rivalry with the Hohenstaufens and led to the long strife with the Ghibellines.

Henry the Lion lost the Duchies of Bavaria and Saxony in 1180, and Welf VI gave his Suabian and Italian lands to the Emperor Henry VI. Otto only had left the lands inherited from Lothair, and in 1235 these lands became the Duchy of Brunswick, and Otto received the title of Duke of Brunswick and Lüneburg. Of the Brunswick Guelphs, the Lüneburg line, in the person of George, joined the Protestant cause, and his son, Christian Louis, received the Duchy of Lüneburg, and his second son, George William, the principality of Calemberg, which was then formed into a duchy. George William took up his residence in the capital of this province and assumed the title of Duke of Hanover. His brother, Ernest Augustus, eventually succeeded him and married Sophia, daughter of the Elector Palatine and Elizabeth Stuart, daughter of James I of England. By the Act of Settlement (1701) the English throne was to go to the Electress Sophia, but as she died shortly before Queen Anne, it went instead to her son George Louis, who became King George I of Great Britain and Ireland. George V is his great-great-great-grandson.



MONARCHS OF THE HOUSES OF STUART AND GUELPH



## HISTORY

The authentic history of England begins with the invasion of Julius Cæsar (54 B. C.), and the country was known to the Romans as Britannia. The country was first a Roman colony, and after being abandoned by the Romans (410) was invaded by the Jutes, Angles and Saxons. During the Anglo-Saxon period, England became Christian. Egbert of Wessex united the various kingdoms and assumed (827) the title of King of England, but the country was divided between Alfred and the Danes in 878 (Treaty of Wedmore), only to be consolidated again in the 10th century. About 1000 the Danes under Sweyn invaded England, and Canute the Dane and his sons were rulers during 1016-42. With the battle of Hastings (1066) and the coming of the Normans, England was conquered for the last time. During the Norman period, feudalism was established, the language was modified, and art and literature began.

In 1215 the barons wrung from King John the famous Magna Charta, the foundation of English liberty, and Parliamentary government began about 1264. The claims of Edward III to the French throne started the Hundred Years' War (1337-1453), which ended by the expulsion of the English from France. From 1453 to 1485, England was torn by the Wars of the Roses, or the strife between

the houses of Lancaster and York, which was ended by the accession of the Tudors to the throne. During the Tudor Period England became very prosperous, and the reign of Elizabeth saw the birth of her greatest literary geniuses, Spenser, Bacon, Shakespeare, Marlowe, Fletcher, Beaumont, etc. Under the Stuarts (1603-1714) the foundation of the colonial empire was laid; and the civil war was waged between Charles I and the Parliament (1642-48) which resulted in the establishment of the commonwealth under Cromwell (1642-48). They also saw the Restoration of the Monarchy (1660), the Revolution of 1688, the accession of William of Orange and Mary (1689), the union with Scotland (1707), and the passing of the Act of Settlement (1701), which secured the crown for the Hanoverian dynasty (George I, 1714). The Hanoverian period is marked by long wars against France, the acquisition of India and Canada, the loss of the United States (1783), union with Ireland (1801), the great wars against Napoleon I, culminating in the battle of Waterloo (1815), and the abolition of slavery (1833). Queen Victoria's reign (1837-1901) saw the Crimean War (1854-56), Chinese Wars (1856-58 and 1860), Indian mutiny (1857-58), Transvaal War (1881), occupation of Egypt and the Soudan (1882-85), and the Boer War (1899-1902). To Edward VII (1901-10) is due the Triple Entente, between England, France and Russia, which was formed to offset the Triple Alliance between Germany, Austria and Italy.

The United Kingdom comprises England, Ireland and Scotland and Wales, and embraces an area of 121,090 sq. miles, with a population of 45,365,599. England is the first maritime power in the world, and also ranks first in commerce and industry on account of the richness of her soil, the extent and variety of her manufactures and her immense colonies. The great industries are mining (which employs 972,220 persons), cotton and textile factories (employing 1,029,000, of whom 600,000 work at cotton spinning) and metal manufactures (steel, iron and silver). According to the 1913-1914 reports the export values amounted to \$4,080,000,000 (of which 73.6 per cent was foreign and 26.4 per cent inter-imperial), and the imports to \$5,120,000,000.

The colonies, which are a great source of English wealth, include:

Asia: India (1767-1858; 1,803,657 sq. mi.; pop. 315,156,396), Ceylon (1795; 25,331 sq. mi.; pop. 3,592,833), Borneo (1898; 31,106 sq. mi.; pop. 208,183), Cyprus (1878; 3,584 sq. mi.; pop. 282,388), Aden (1905; 75 sq. mi.; pop. 46,165), the key to the Persian Gulf, and Hong Kong (1841; 376 sq. mi.; pop. 366,145).

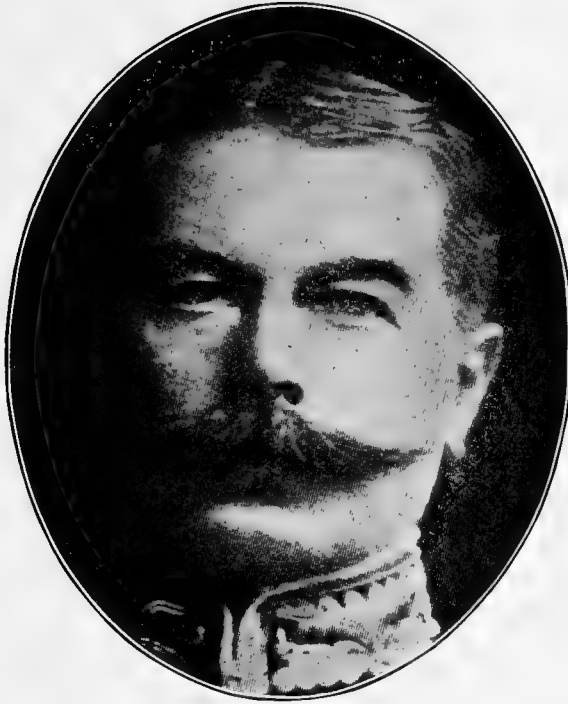
Africa: Union of South Africa (1909; 473,100 sq. mi.; pop. 5,973,394), British East Africa (1905; 246,822 sq. mi.; pop. 4,038,000), and British West Africa (1861-1900; 336,080 sq. mi.; pop. 17,100,000); England also exercises a protectorate over Egypt.

America: The Dominion of Canada (1763-1867; 3,603,900 sq. mi.; pop. 7,206,643), Newfoundland (1583-1783; 42,734 sq. mi.; pop. 241,172), West Indies (1655; 90,000 sq. mi.; pop. 5,000,000).

Australasia: Commonwealth of Australia (1788-1828; 2,974,581 sq. mi.; pop. 4,836,625), New Zealand (1840; 104,760 sq. mi.; pop. 1,100,000), and Western Pacific (about 24,000 sq. mi.; pop. 211,000).

Europe: Gibraltar (1704; 2 sq. mi.; pop. 20,000), the key to the Mediterranean; Malta (1814; 120 sq. mi.; pop. 211,000).

The British Constitution provides for an executive power vested in the sovereign and his ministers and a legislative power vested in Parliament, which is composed of the House of Lords (whose members hold office by hereditary right or are appointed by the sovereign) and the House of Commons (the members of which are elected by the people).



EARL KITCHENER OF KHARTOUM, WAR MINISTER



RIGHT HONORABLE WINSTON CHURCHILL, FIRST LORD OF THE  
ADMIRALTY



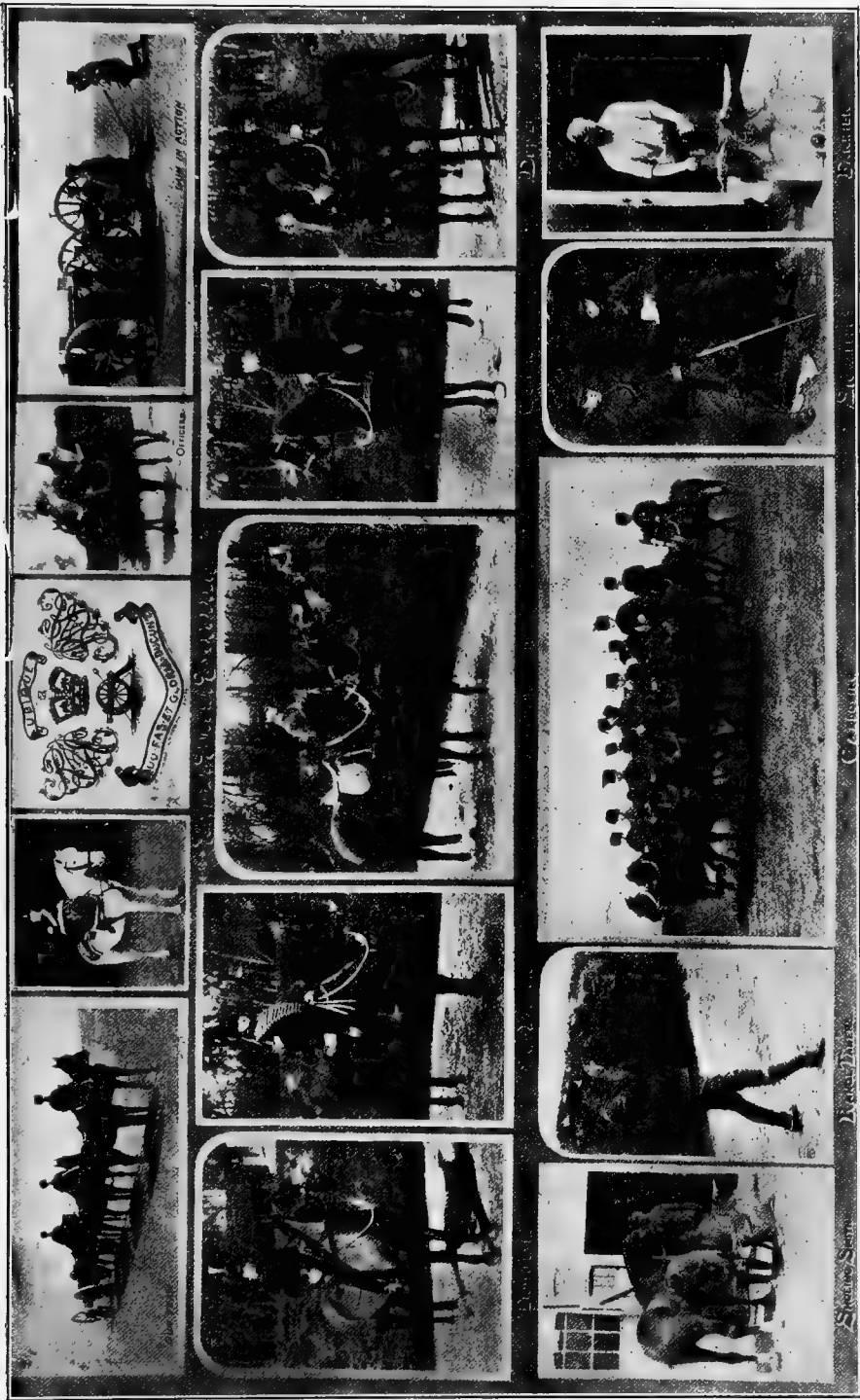
## THE ARMY



Until the Norman Conquest the armed force of England was essentially a national militia, every free-man having to bear arms either to defend the country or to maintain order. The men at first fought on foot; then as mailed horsemen, and the Conqueror introduced the system of tenure by knight service. According to this system, William granted lands to the barons in return for their guarantees to supply him with a "constabularia," or a body of ten knights, or a part of a constabularia. These knights had to serve, with horse and arms at their own expense, 40 days each year. The barons then got their tenants to serve as knights in return for land, or if they could not supply the knights, the barons paid the king an equivalent in money, "scutage," with which he hired mercenaries. From the pay-rolls found during the siege of Calais (1346), it is

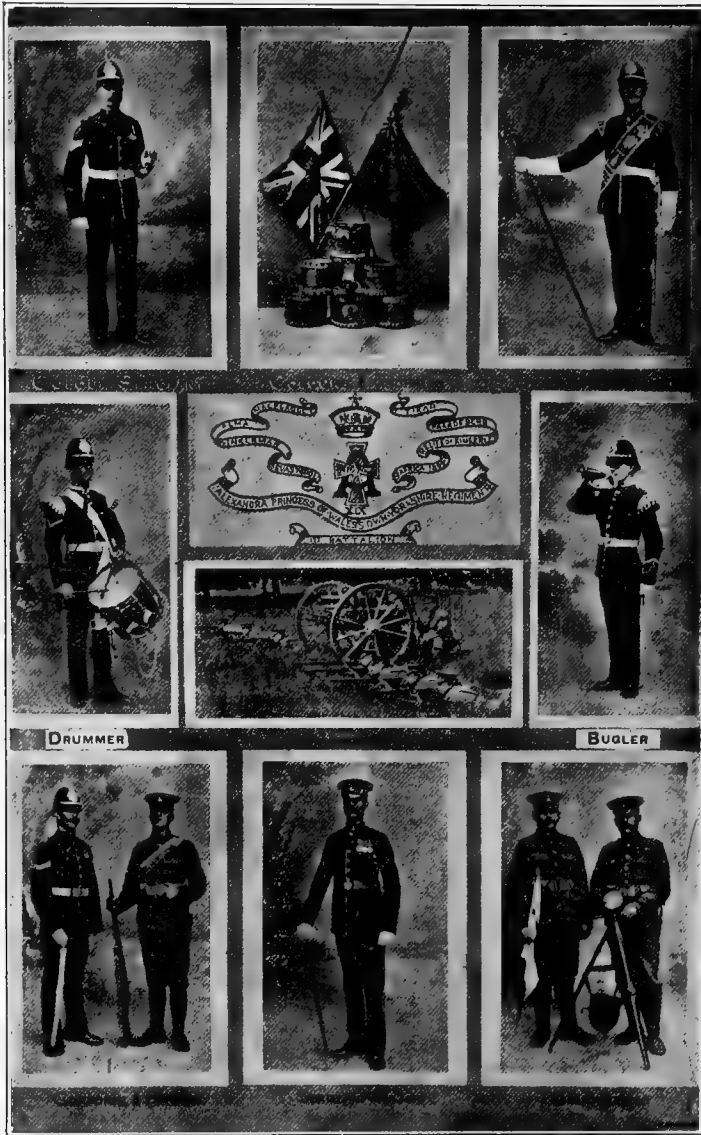
known that all ranks from the Prince downwards were paid, the funds being provided partly from the royal revenues, by grants from Parliament, and from fines. The soldiers' contract usually ended with the war.

In the struggle between Cromwell and the King, the influence of Cromwell's own well-trained troops paved the way for a complete army re-organization, which was given the name of the "New Model." This new army, however, was disbanded on the restoration of the Monarchy (1660) after it had enforced the execution of King Charles I, dissolved Parliament and governed England for some years. There remained of it only Monk's regiment of foot, the Coldstream Guards of the Army of to-day. Owing to the jealousy of Parliament no serious attempt was made to maintain a large army until 1702, when in the war of the Spanish Succession, an army of 200,000, not wholly British, however, fought under Marlborough, and won the battles of Blenheim (1704), Ramillies (1706), Oudenarde (1708), and Malplaquet (1709). After the Peace of Utrecht (1714), the force was again reduced, and from this time the strength of the standing army has been determined by the annual votes of Parliament.



ROYAL HORSE ARTILLERY





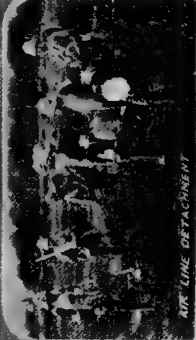
PRINCE OF WALES' OWN YORKSHIRE REGIMENT

The fame won during the latter part of the Seven Years' War was counteracted by the defeat in America and by the unsuccessful efforts against the French Revolutionary troops; the corrupt condition of the home administration was changed with the appointment (1798) of Frederick Augustus, Duke of York, as commander-in-chief. He raised the army to a high standard of efficiency, and prepared the way for the successes of the Peninsular War, culminating in Waterloo, from which England emerged with the reputation of the most solidly organized and finest army in Europe.

After this war the former peace effective of 20,000 men was increased to 80,000, and a uniform drill was introduced and perfected. In 1847 life enlist-



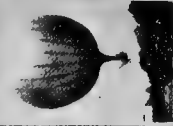
SOLDIERS



THE LINE DETACHMENT



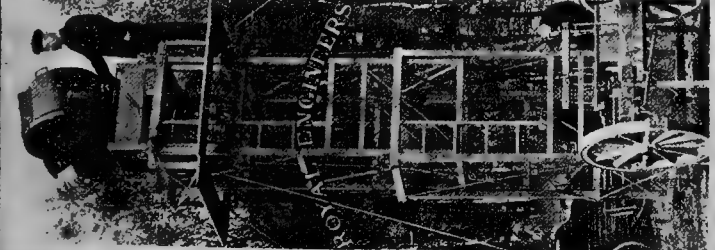
SOLDIERS



SOLDIER



THE OTHER SIDE



ENGINEERS



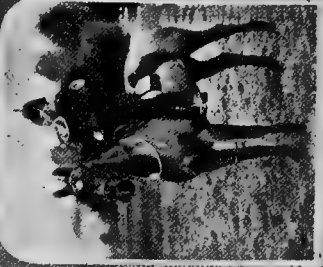
THE OTHER SIDE



THE SOLDIER FROM THE



THE SOLDIER FROM THE

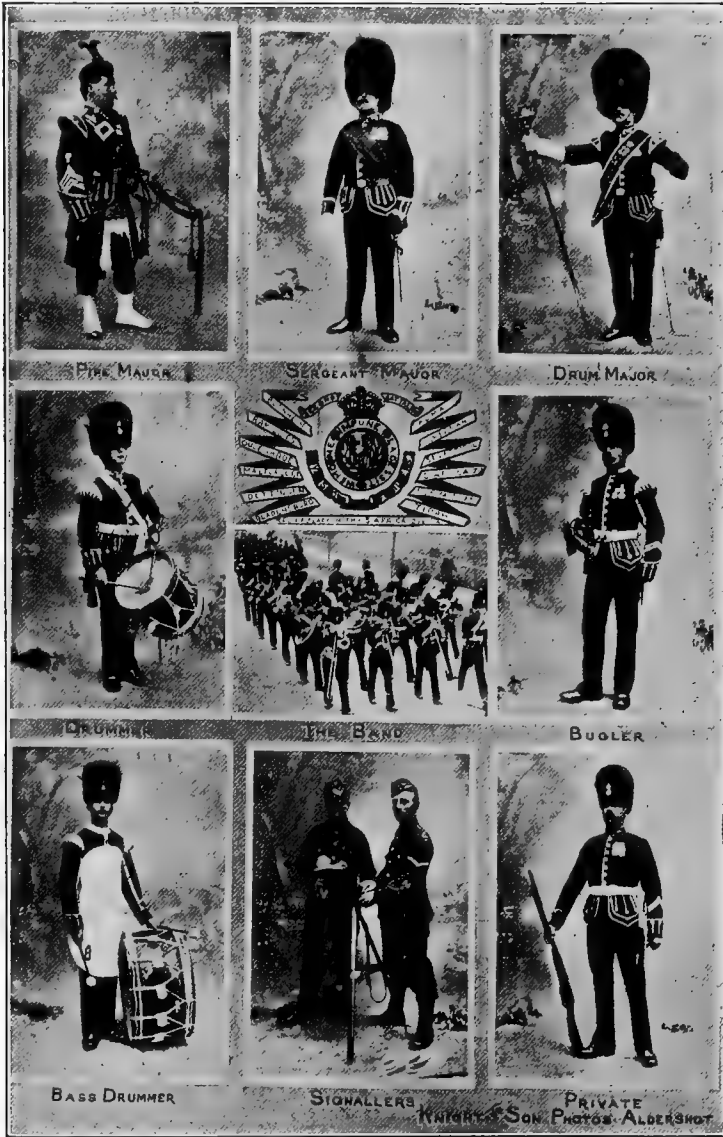


THE SOLDIER FROM THE

THE SOLDIER FROM THE

THE SOLDIER FROM THE

THE SOLDIER FROM THE



## ROYAL SCOTS FUSILIERS

ment was replaced by the Limited Service Act, which provided for enlistments of from ten to twelve years, with power to re-engage to complete twenty-one. The army did not see any special service until the Crimean War in 1854, from which it came out victorious. Profiting, however, by the severe lessons learned during this war, England revised the whole system of administration; the minor departments were absorbed and the whole entrusted to chiefs, one at the War Office and one at the Horse Guards (in 1870 these two offices were combined); the food and general treatment of the soldiers were improved, their pay increased, and recreation rooms and libraries were provided for them.



TROOPS OF THE INDIAN EMPIRE



NORTHUMBERLAND FUSILIERS

As a consequence of the Boer War, successive schemes were undertaken by the various war ministers, culminating in Secretary of War Haldane's "territorial" scheme (1908). Under this system the country was divided into districts, which were again divided and subdivided as necessary. Each unit recruits, and is in peace usually stationed in its own area; the artillery, cavalry and special arms are recruited for the corps throughout the whole allotted area, and are stationed at various points within the area. Military service is voluntary, and the maintenance of the standing army depends upon the Army Bill which is



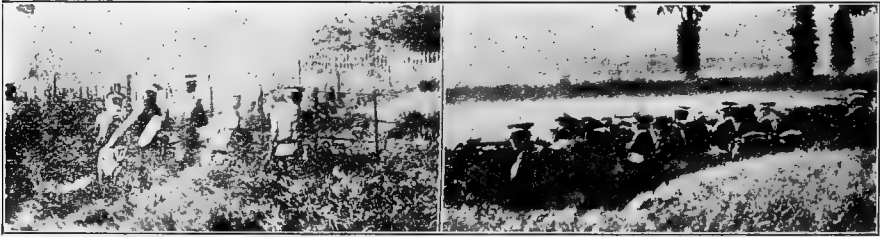
passed annually by the House of Commons. Parliament also at each session passes an act empowering the Crown to take the necessary steps to maintain discipline.

Through the organization effected under the special Act of 1907, the British army consists of the "regular" and "territorial" armies. The regular comprises the permanently embodied troops and the army reserves, about half of the force being always abroad in India and the Crown colonies. In this branch enlistments are for twelve years, with the possibility of extension to twenty-one years for a life pension. Color service in the infantry and artillery is for six, seven and nine years, with six, five, or three years in reserve; in the cavalry enlistment is for eight years, with four in the reserve, enlistments being also made for three years, but solely for reserve forming purposes. Under the Re-organization Act the militia, as such, was abolished, and of the 124 militia battalions formerly existing, 74 were constituted reserve battalions of the regular army, while the militia artillery became reserve field artillery. Members of these bodies are partially trained in time of peace, and are available either for transfer to the army or for service abroad in time of war.

The territorial army (composed of 14 divisions and cavalry brigades) in organization is similar to the regular army. Recruitment is voluntary, and the period of enlistment is for four years, with the option of continued engagements



FOLLOWING THE PIPES  
THE SCOTS GUARDS MARCHING



for periods of four years between the ages of 27 and 40. Annual training consists of from 8 to 15 days in camp, and men receive pay while on duty at the same rate as in the regular army. In case of mobilization, the territorial army would train for six months, and would then have the duty of repelling the invasion, although 20,000 officers and men (1914) have accepted liability for service abroad in war. By its last (1914) reports its strength was 9,650 officers and 260,404 men.

The following table shows the number of officers and men on the regimental establishments of the army, army reserve, special reserves and territorial forces:

	Establishments* 1913-1914	Effective 1912-1913	Effective Jan. 1, 1913
Regular forces (Regimental), Home and Colonial (including regular establishment of special reserves) .....	167,868	168,282	162,251
Colonial and Native Indian Corps.....	8,765	8,871	8,694
Army Reserve .....	145,000	139,000	141,898
Special Reserves (excluding regular establishment) .....	78,714	89,913	61,048
Militia, U. K.** .....			636
Militia, Reserve Division** .....	90	150	94
Militia, Channel Islands .....	3,166	3,166	2,928
Militia, Malta and Bermuda and Bermuda Volunteers .....	2,894	2,894	3,770
Territorial Force .....	315,438	316,307	265,867
Isle of Man Volunteers .....	126	126	115
Officers and Training Corps (Officers and Permanent Staff) .....	1,009	1,008	791
Total Home and Colonial Establishments...	723,160	729,717	647,092
Regular Forces (Regimental) on Indian Establishment .....	75,897	75,886	77,097
Total .....	799,057	805,603	724,189

\* Exclusive of number voted to cover regimental fluctuations.

\*\* Force dying out.

Great Britain's expenditure for armament for 1913-1914 amounted to \$390,-528,112, and is the largest in proportion to the population, being \$8.50 per capita.



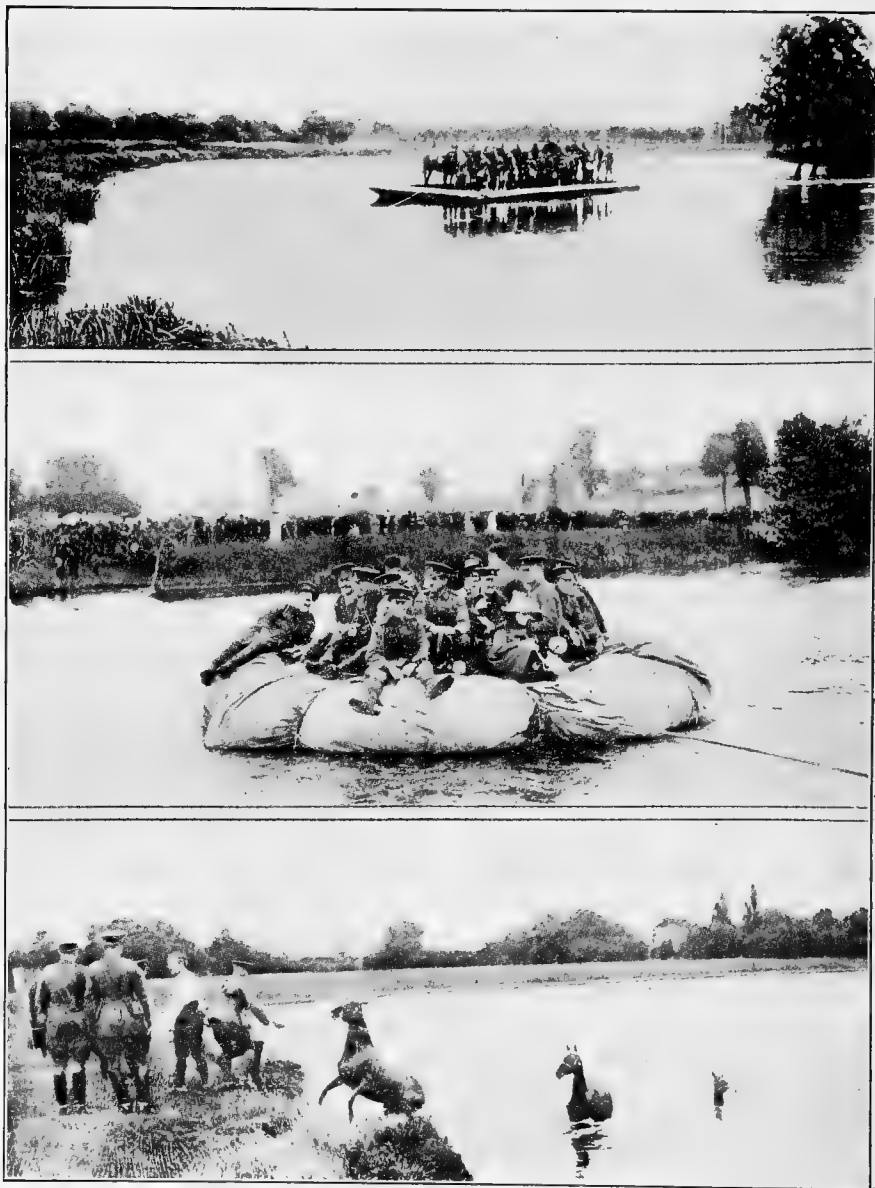




8

FIELD MANOEUVRES

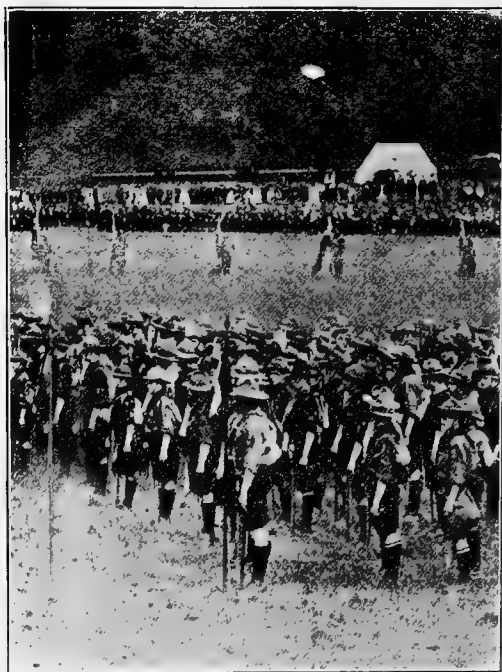




SOLDIERS CROSSING A RIVER



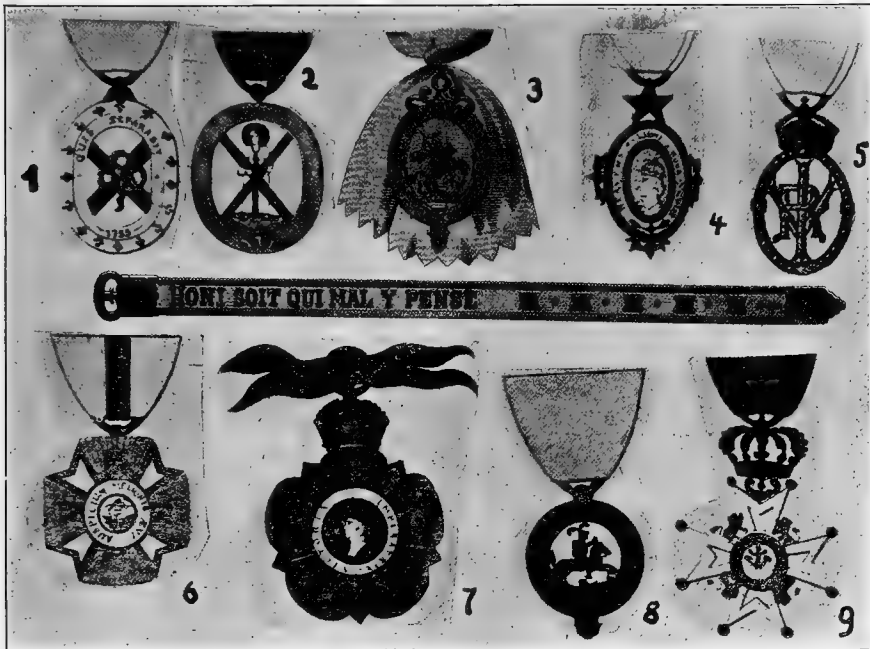
FIELD MANOEUVRES



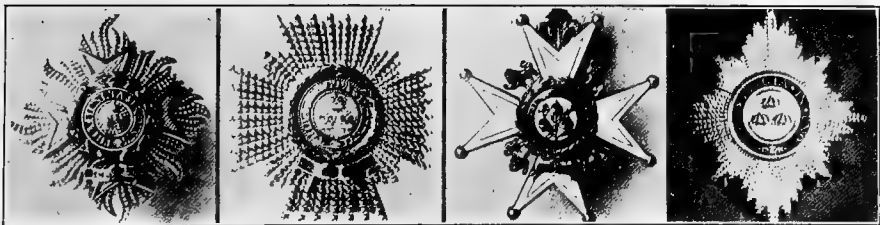
A BRITISH INSTITUTION: BOY SCOUTS, ORGANIZED BY GENERAL  
BADEN-POWELL DURING THE SOUTH AFRICAN WAR



SUPPLY TRAIN

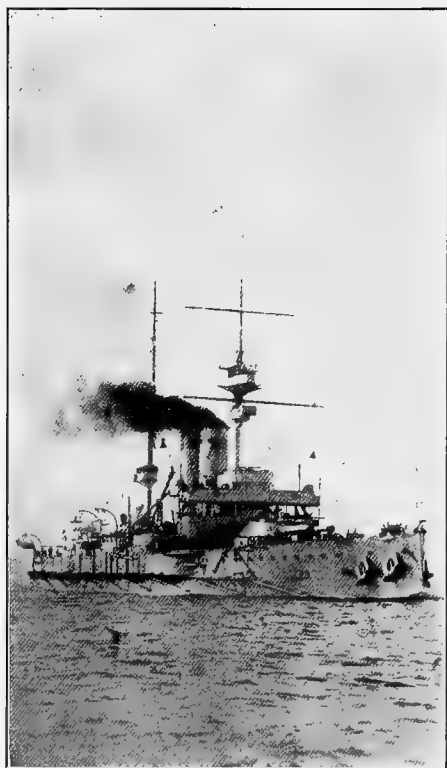


- |                               |                            |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. ORDER OF ST. PATRICK.      | 5. CROWN OF INDIA          |
| 2. ORDER OF CHARDON.          | 6. ST. MICHAEL AND GEORGE. |
| 3. GREAT ORDER OF THE GARTER. | 7. EMPEROR OF INDIA.       |
| 4. STAR OF INDIA.             | 8. ORDER OF THE GARTER.    |
| 9. ORDER OF THE BATH          |                            |





## THE NAVY

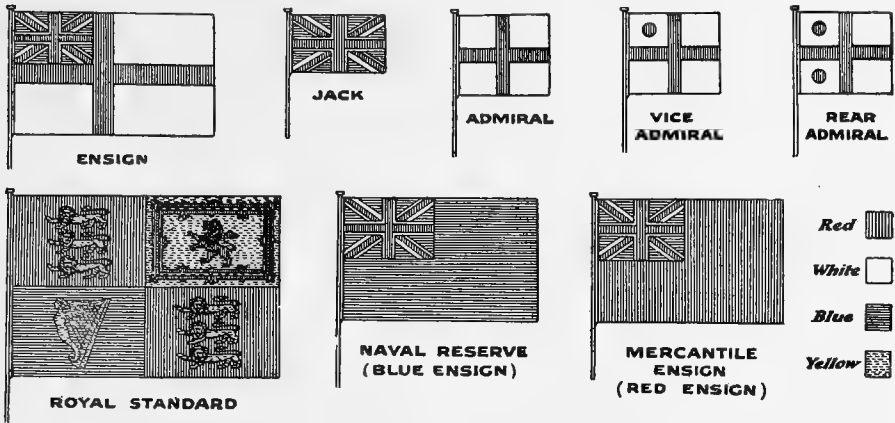


THE PRE-DREADNOUGHT  
"KING EDWARD VII"

To defend themselves against the Norse invasions of the 9th century, the English people founded a national organization which called upon each shire to supply a certain number of ships. In addition to these, Alfred the Great and his successors had ships of their own, and maintained them out of the royal revenues. To these were added in the 11th century the feudal "array," or the services rendered by the seaport towns in return for special franchises and privileges granted them. The Norman Conquest made no fundamental change. In the reign of Henry III (1216-72) the navy consisted of 57 ships and 1,197 men and boys, who were paid partly by the king and partly by the different towns.

The foundation of the modern navy really dates from the reign of King John, who had 50 galleys (long ships of war) in various ports. In 1360 Sir John Beauchamp was placed in charge of the navy, and given the title of admiral, and this office became a permanent one in 1406 when John Beaufort was appointed to it. The crews consisted

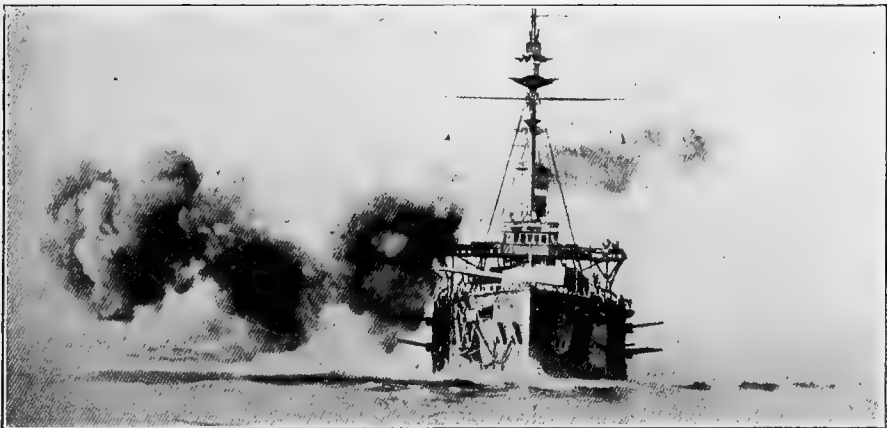
of mariners to navigate the ships and soldiers to fight, and all vessels were, of course, sailing ones. During the reigns of Edward III and Richard II (1377-1399) the navy declined, and the coast was ravaged by the French and their allies; but except during these periods the navy of the Middle Ages was more than a match for its enemies, as proved by the victories over Philip Augustus in 1213, Eustace the Monk in 1217 off Dover,



NAVAL FLAGS

the French fleet at Sluys in 1340, and the Spanish off Winchelsea in 1350. To the navy was due the long occupation of Calais by the English.

Under the Tudors (1485-1603) the navy steadily developed, and Henry VII built many ships. Henry VIII organized the navy office, which was the administrative machinery until 1832. Under the Stuarts the navy became a national force, maintained solely by Parliament. Corruption, however, set in, and in 1618 the committee appointed to investigate undertook to reconstruct the navy at an annual cost of £30,000. This promise was fulfilled in 1624. In 1688 the navy



BATTLE PRACTICE, FIRING AT A TARGET NINE MILES AWAY



DREADNOUGHT "COLOSSUS"

comprised 173 ships of 101,892 tons, carrying when in commission 42,003 men, and armed with 6,930 guns.

After the Revolution of 1688 the king ceased to direct the navy, and it was governed by a parliamentary committee known as the commission for discharging the office of lord high admiral. The crews were obtained partly by voluntary enlistment and partly by impressment, and when these resources failed, recourse was had to the jails. The mismanagement of the fleet in the Spanish War (1739) led to a drastic reform in the navy, which bore fruit before the close of the war.



DREADNOUGHT "HERCULES"



DEFYING  
THE  
DARK

In 1814 the fleet consisted of 900 vessels manned by 146,000 men. After the Napoleonic wars the force was considerably reduced. The administration up to 1832 was generally corrupt. But in that year Sir James Graham combined the admiralty and naval offices into one, consisting of five departments; and from this dates the modern navy organization. The board of admiralty consists of a first lord, who is always a member of the Cabinet, and who directs and supervises all naval affairs; under him are four naval and one civil lords.

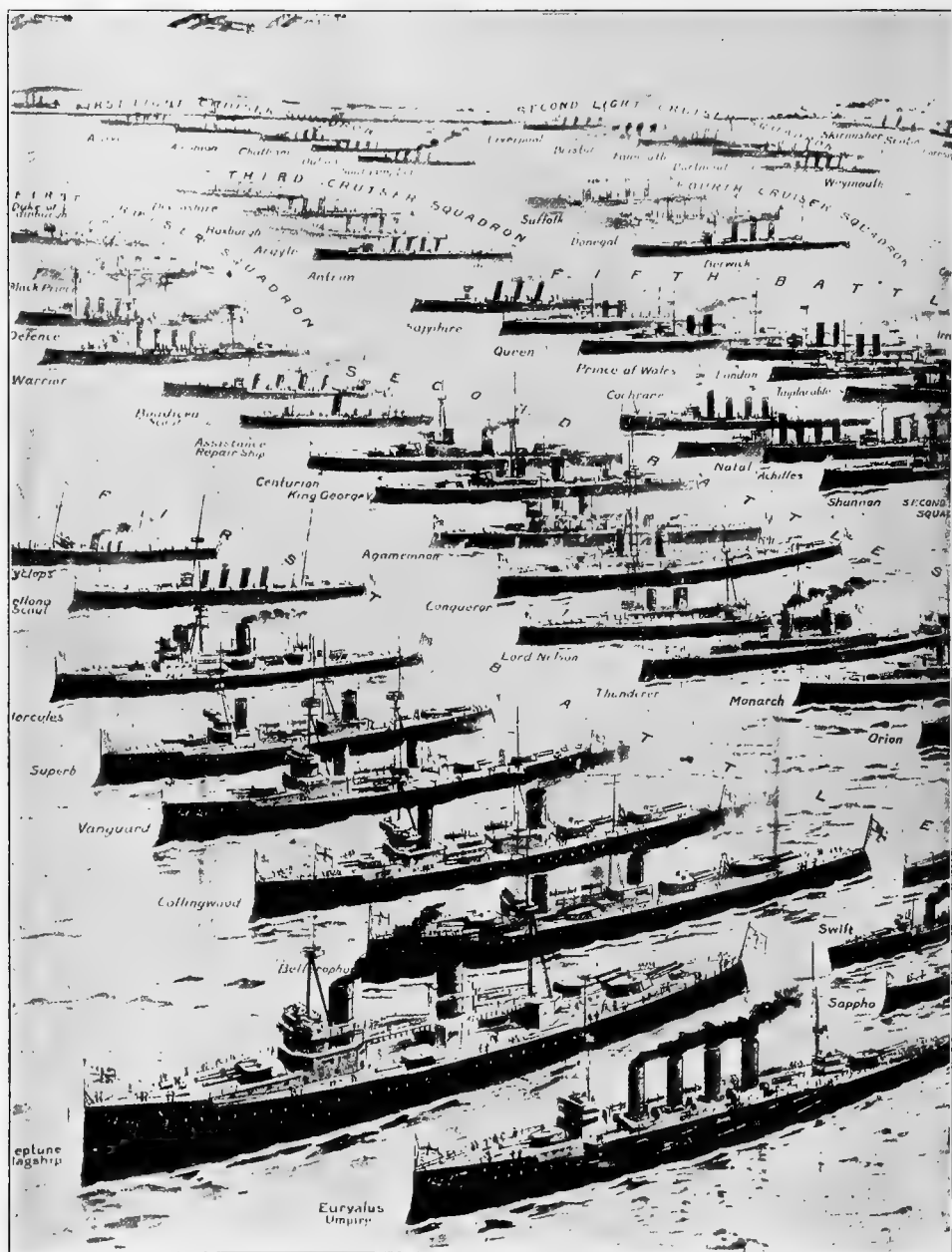
The British fleet shows to-day a strength of: 27 dreadnoughts; 45 battle-ships; 10 battle cruisers; 53 armored cruisers; 94 light cruisers; 195 destroyers; 49 torpedo boats; and 85 submarines. The ships being built (1914) are: 14 dreadnoughts; 20 cruisers; and 44 destroyers. The navy expenditure for 1913-1914 amounted to \$231,546,500, an increase of 48 per cent over that of 1907-1908. The air fleet includes: 6 dirigibles and 136 aeroplanes, and 3 dirigibles are being built.

The *personnel* includes: officers, seamen and boys, 115,052; coast-guards, 3,130; marines, 18,235; officers, men and boys under training or otherwise employed on particular service, 9,583; officers on salary or half pay, 420. The Naval Reserve includes 21,523; the Home Fleet Reserve, 28,764; the Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve, 4,200; and pensioners (seamen and marines), 8,023. The grand total, active and reserve, amounts to: 208,929, and shows an increase of 11,138 over the figures of 1912-1913.

SEARCHLIGHTS  
AT  
WORK







GUARDIAN OF THE BRITISH ISLES

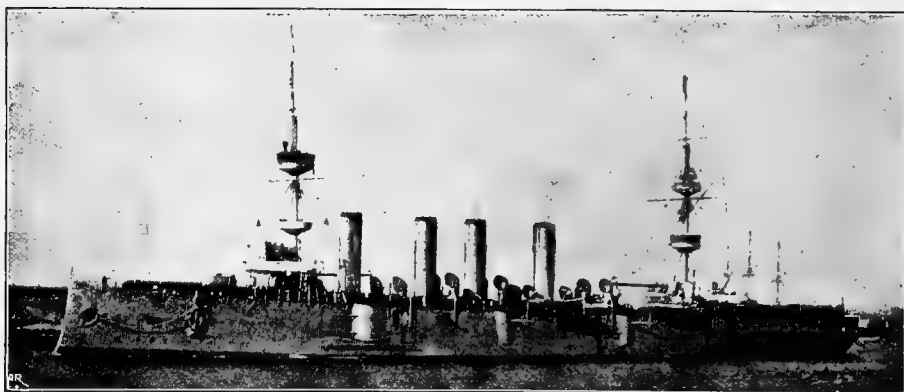




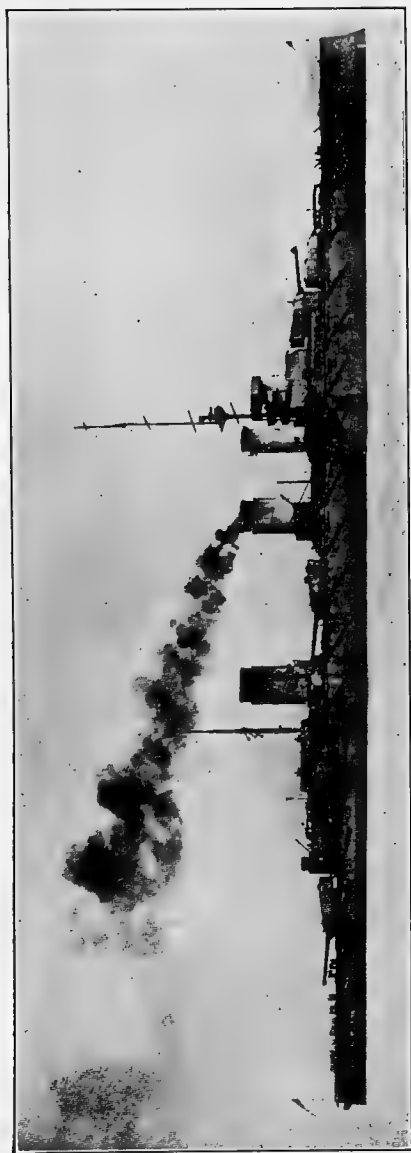
H. M. BATTLESHIP "ALBEMARLE"



H. M. CRUISER "MAGNIFICENT"



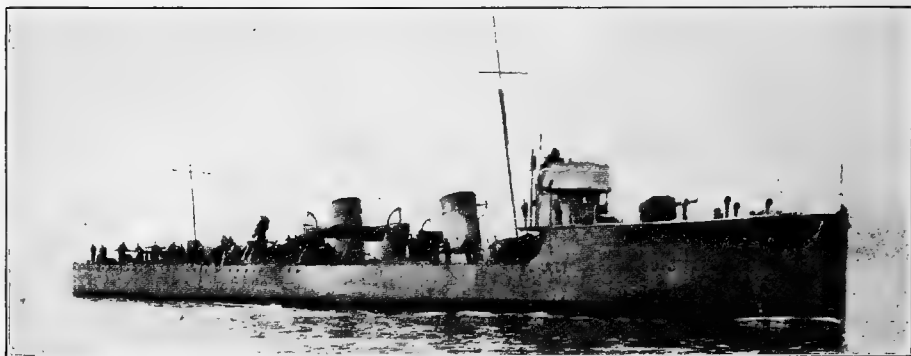
H. M. CRUISER "TERRIBLE"



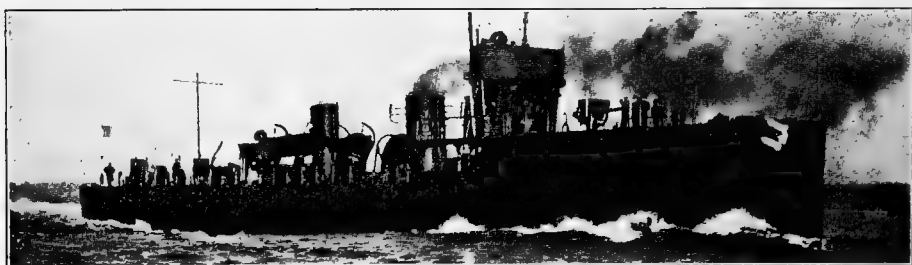
H. M. DREADNOUGHT "QUEEN MARY"



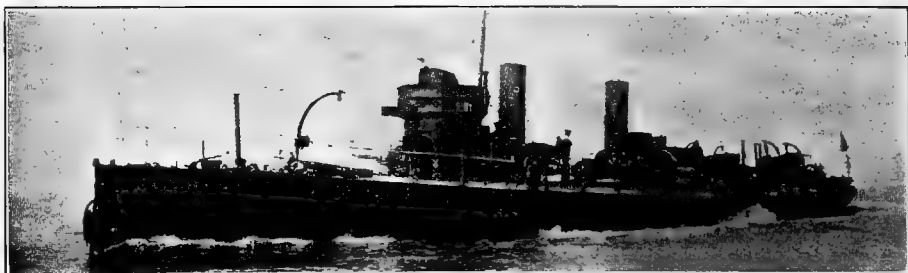
H. M. DREADNOUGHT "IRON DUKE"



H. M. DESTROYER "FIREDRAKE"



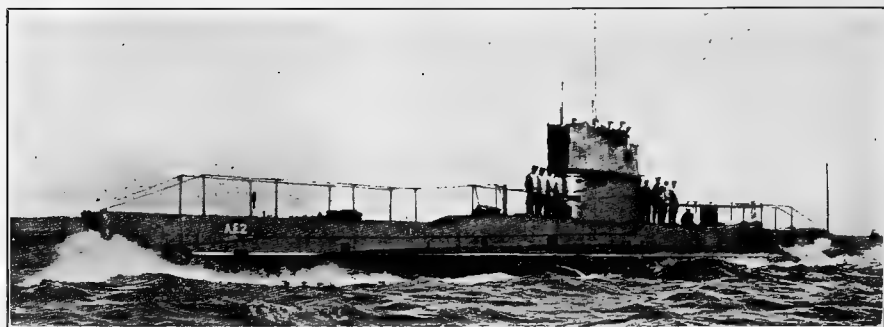
H. M. DESTROYER "ARIEL"



H. M. TORPEDO BOAT "85"



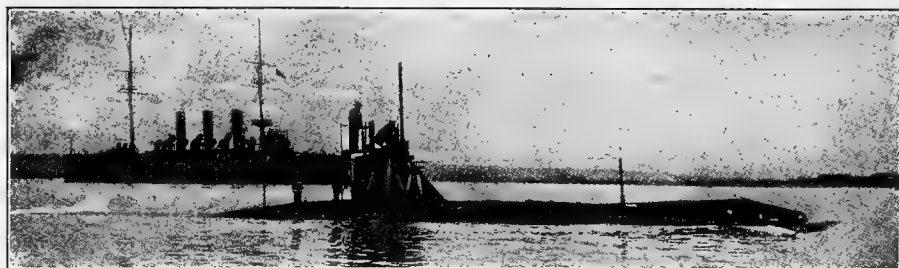
NAVY UNIFORMS



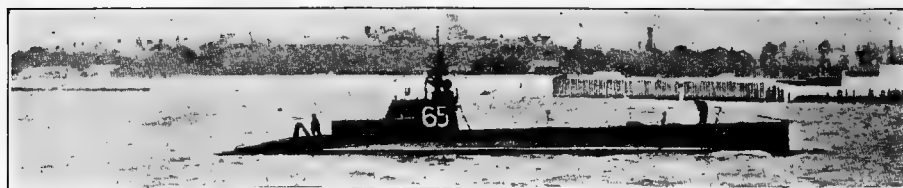
SUBMARINE "A E 2"



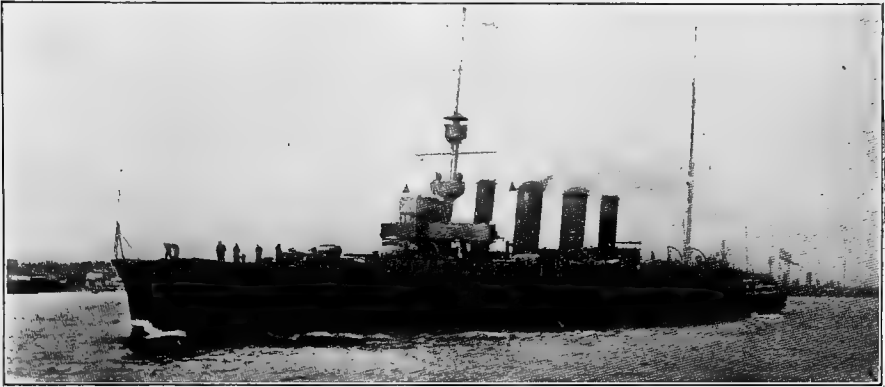
H. M. SUBMARINE "D 78"



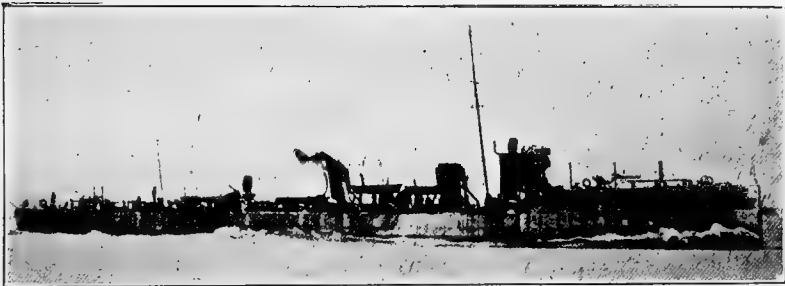
H. M. SUBMARINE "A 14"



H. M. SUBMARINE "C 65"



H. M. CRUISER "BIRMINGHAM"

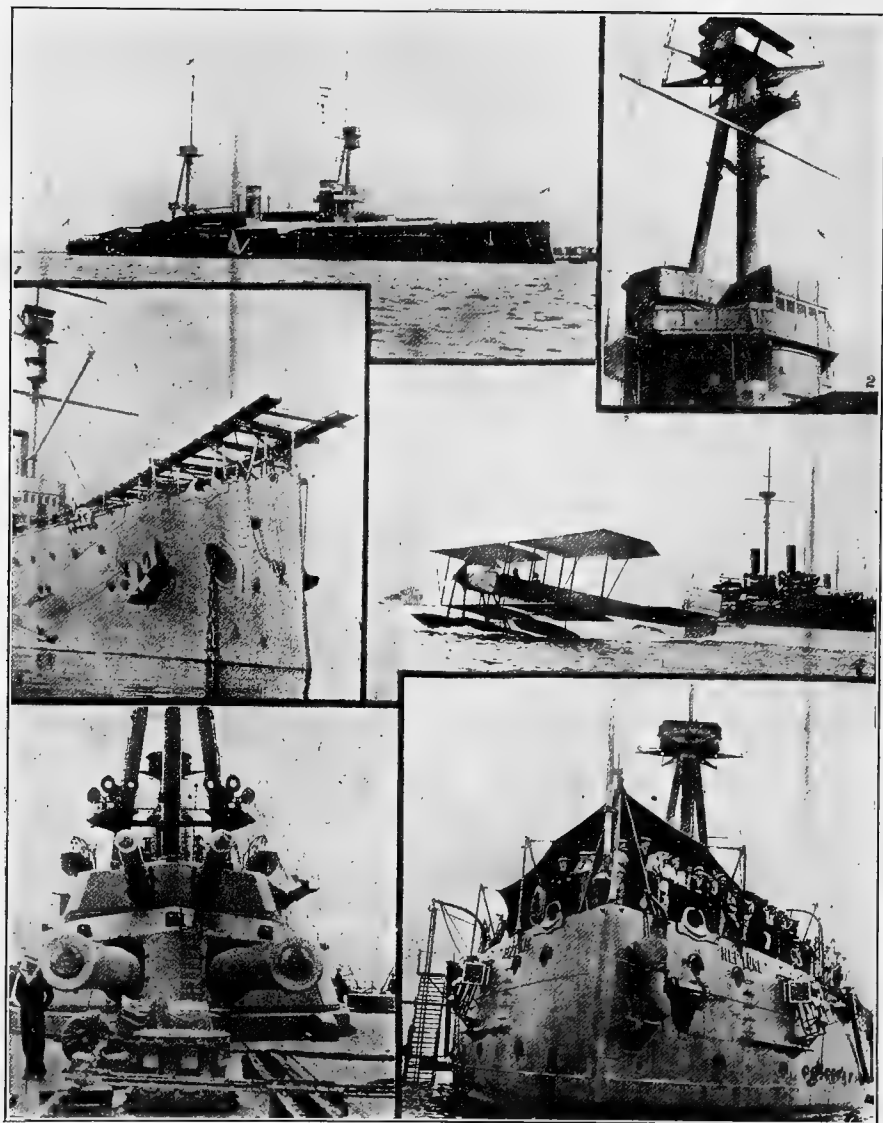


FLOATING DOCK

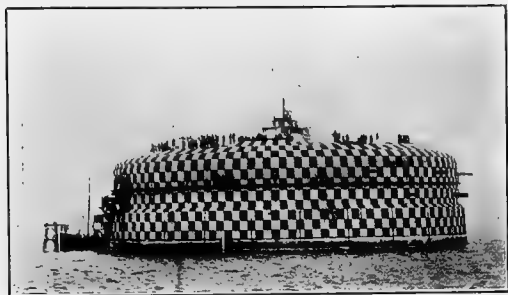


THE FLEET ANCHORED OFF SPITHEAD

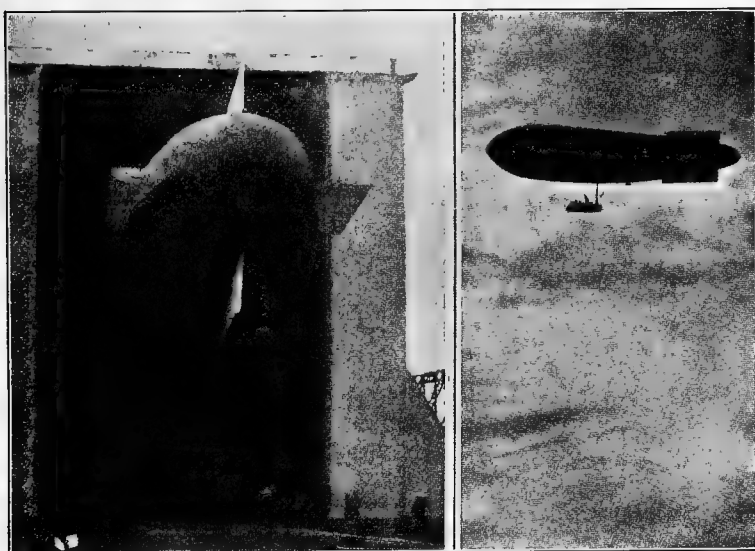




PHASES OF NAVAL ACTIVITY



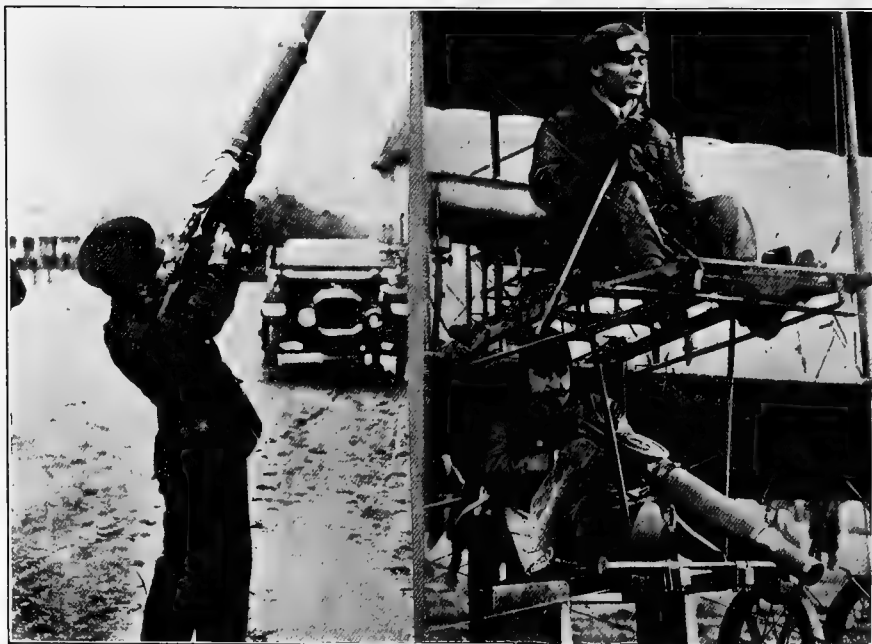
DEFENSE AGAINST ATTACKS  
BY SEA AND AIR



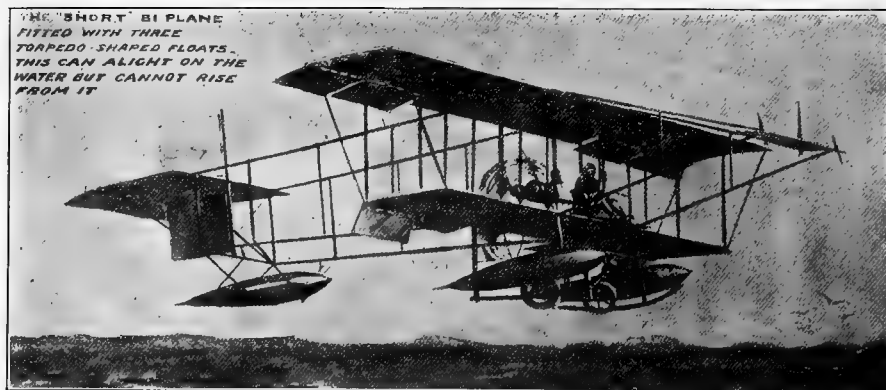
THE AIR FLEET: BRITISH DIRIGIBLES



THE AIR FLEET: HYDROPLANE



A NEW WEAPON: AN ENGLISH GUN WHICH MAY BE FIRED EITHER  
AT OR FROM AIR CRAFT

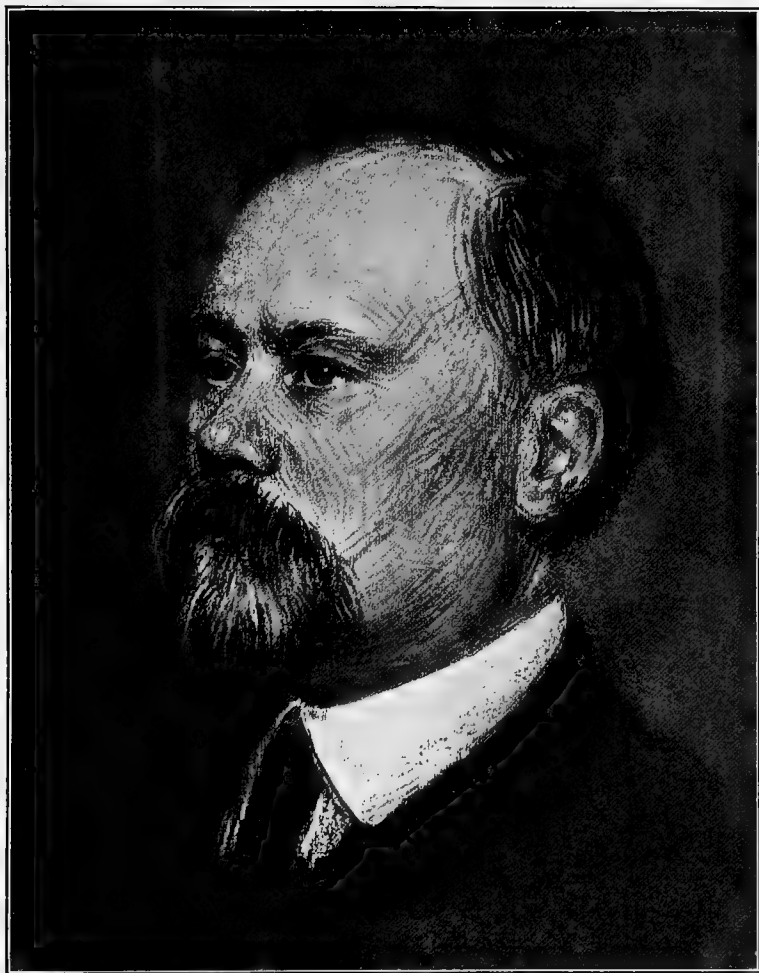


THE AIR FLEET: BI-PLANE

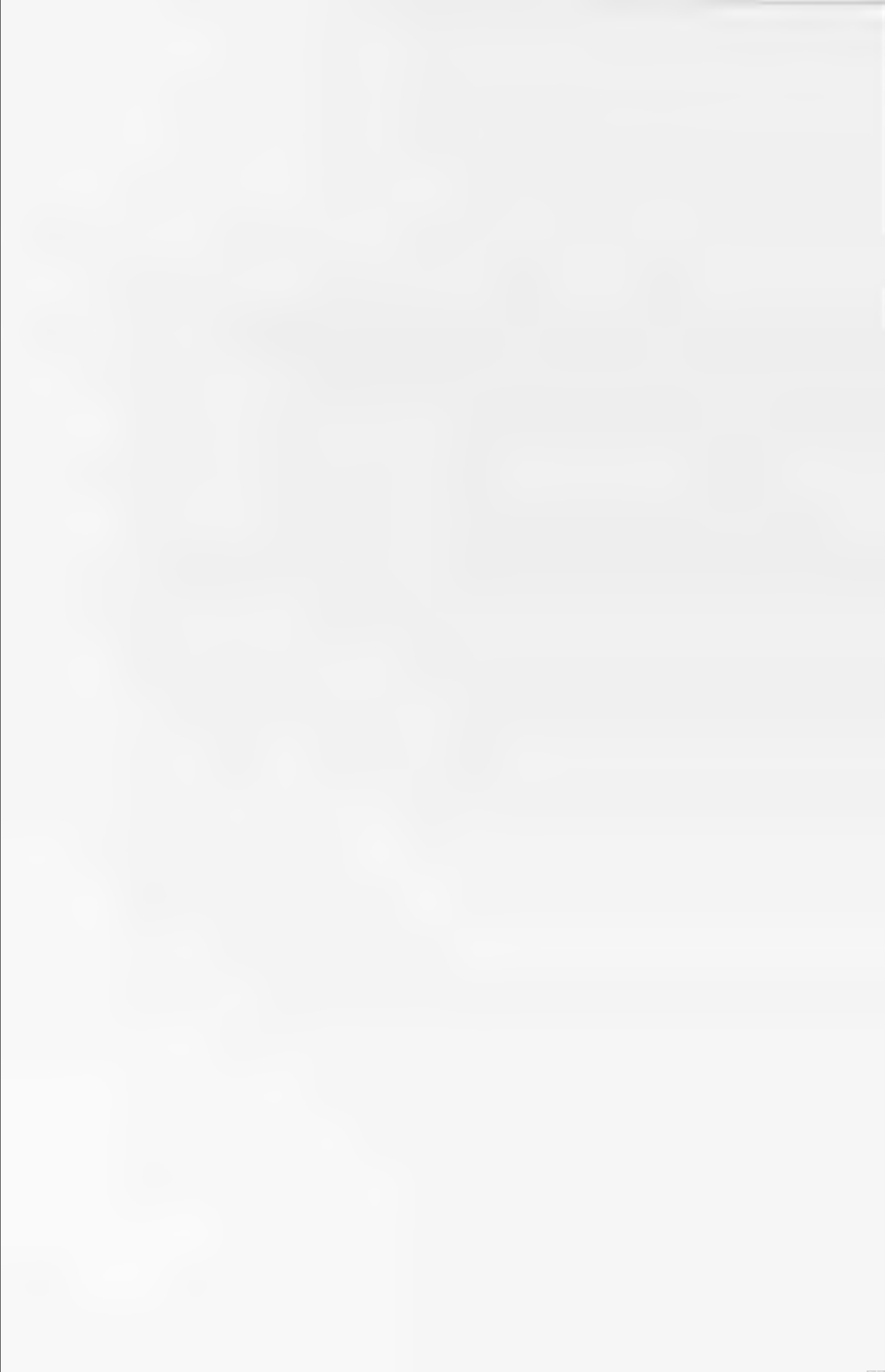


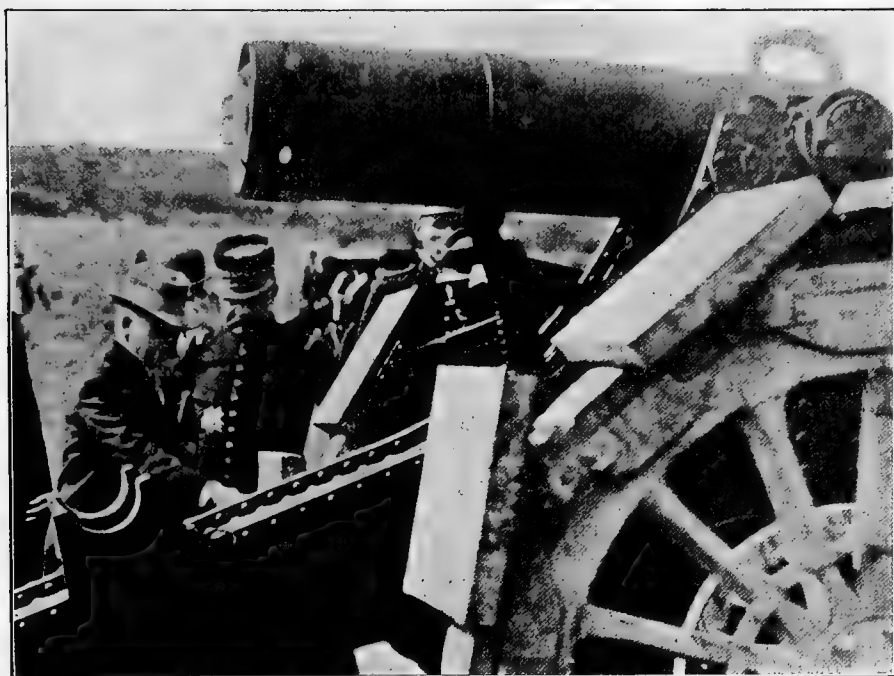
France





RAYMOND POINCARÉ  
President of France





THE PRESIDENT EXAMINING A SIEGE GUN

### THE PRESIDENT

M. Raymond Poincaré was born on August 20, 1860, at Bar-le-Duc (Meuse). He studied law at Paris, served as Secretary to the Minister of Agriculture, and entered politics in 1887, when he was elected to the Chamber of Deputies. He was Minister of Public Instruction in 1893 and again in 1895, and was Finance Minister in 1894 and again in 1896. He entered the Senate in 1903, and on the fall of the Caillaux Cabinet he accepted the premiership (January, 1912), which he retained until his election as president on January 17, 1913. His election was considered throughout France a triumph for nationalism as M. Poincaré is well known as an advocate of electoral reform and proportional representation. In recognition of his merits, he was elected a member of the French Academy (1909). Of his works perhaps the most well known is *Idées Contemporaines*. He is a man of high honor and exceptional ability. The enthusiastic reception accorded to him by the English nation during his visit to King George in 1913, was regarded as a proof of the popularity of the Triple Entente.





M. VIVIANI  
Premier



M. DELCASSÉ  
War Minister



GENERAL JOFFRÉ  
Commander-in-Chief of the Army



ADMIRAL BOUË DE LAPEYRÈRE  
Commander-in-Chief of the Fleet



CIVIL ORDER OF MERIT    ORDER OF MENTANA    LEGION OF HONOR



## HISTORY



Before the Roman conquest, France was divided among three peoples, the Gauls, the Iberians and the Greeks, who had developed a flourishing and advanced civilization. The first Roman incursions took place about 154 B. C. and continued until 52 B. C., when the country as far as the Rhine and the Channel was conquered by Julius Caesar and made a Roman province. It was then known as Gaul. During the fifth century, A. D., various barbarian tribes invaded the province. The Visigoths settled in the south, the Burgundians in the east, and in the northeast the Salian Franks (from whom the name France is derived), a Gothic tribe which had settled along the Scheldt, the Meuse and the Rhine. The Franks gradually overcame the Gallo-Romans and their King, Clovis, at the battle of Soissons (486) succeeded in putting an end to the Roman domination of 6 centuries. He extended his authority from the Rhine to the Rhone and from the Pyrenees to the Channel, established his residence at Paris, converted his subjects to Christianity, and founded the Merovingian dynasty.

At his death the kingdom was divided among his four sons, and there was a state of continual warfare until Dagobert I (638) assumed the title of King of the Franks and re-established order. His successors left all conduct of affairs to the "mayors of the palace," against whose tyrannical rule the nobles under Pepin of Héristal, one of the mayors, revolted. Pepin assumed complete control, though leaving the empty title of King to Thierry III. He re-established the ancient assemblies, and gave a seat in them to the bishops and clergy. His son, Charles Martel, in a series of brilliant victories, defeated the Frisians, Germans, Bretons and Aquitanians, adding considerable territory to the kingdom, and in the battle of Tours (732) drove the Saracens out of France. With his son, Pepin the Short, the rule of the "rois fainéants" came to an end. Childeric III was confined in a monastery, and Pepin ascended the throne (752). Though he accomplished much, his fame is overshadowed by the greater glory of his son Charlemagne, who began the Carolingian dynasty. He enlarged his kingdom, taking Aix-la-Chapelle for his capital, founded schools, encouraged art, advanced civilization in every way, and re-established the Roman Empire, being crowned Emperor by Pope Leo III in 800. By the treaty of Verdun (843), his

empire was divided among his three sons, Louis receiving the lands east of the Rhine (Deutschland, Germany), Lothair receiving Italy and the title of emperor, and Charles the lands west of the Scheldt, Meuse, Saône and Rhone, which were called France.

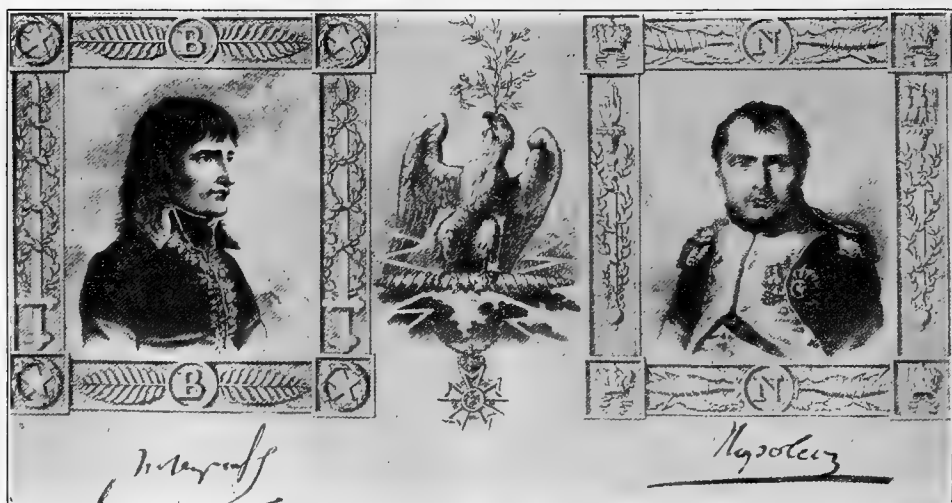
Under the feeble Carlovingians, France was invaded by the Normans (who founded Normandy), feudalism was established, and the power of the nobles constantly increased, until Hugh Capet, one of their number, seized the throne, thus founding the Capetian dynasty. He was crowned at Rheims (987), and added to the small remaining territory of the Carlovingians Paris, Orleans and a part of Picardy, thus forming the "domain of the crown," to the increase of which, and to the augmenting of the power of the King, succeeding Capetians devoted themselves.

Great progress was made under succeeding Capetian sovereigns. Louis VI (1108-37) subdued the nobles, granted certain liberties to the *communes*, added much territory in the south by the marriage of his son to Eleanor of Aquitaine, and began the long wars with England. Philip Augustus (d. 1223), added Vermandois, Valais, Amiens and Artois, joined the Third Crusade, recovered Normandy, Anjou, Touraine, Maine and Poitou from the English (battle of Bouvines, 1214), protected the cities against the nobles, surrounded Paris with a wall, paved the streets, constructed the Halles and the Louvre, rebuilt Notre Dame (which had been begun by Louis VII), and grouped the schools of Paris into a university. St. Louis IX (d. 1270), one of the greatest of French kings, concluded a treaty with England, embarked on the seventh and eighth crusades (on the latter of which he died), and consolidated his kingdom, establishing peace and prosperity, advancing justice and encouraging learning. Philip le Bel (d. 1314), summoned the States General for the first time (March 28, 1302). With Charles IV (1322-28), the Capetian line died out, and as the States General at the time of Louis X had decided to follow the Salic law and exclude the female heirs, the throne went to Philip VI (nephew of Philip le Bel) of Valois. Under his successors, and during the Hundred Years' War, France declined; but thanks to Joan of Arc, in 1453, Charles VII was enabled to overcome the English. With renewed strength, he took up the struggle against the nobles, which was carried on by Louis XI (d. 1483). Charles VII began the Italian wars which were so full of disaster for Francis I. Though his political policy brought great trouble upon his country, Francis introduced the Renaissance, was a liberal patron of art and literature, created the Collège de France and made his court with the help of his sister, Marguerite, one of the most brilliant in Europe.

In 1589 the Valois line died out, and the crown went to the Bourbon Henry of Navarre, who was descended from the sixth son of St. Louis IX. He defeated the League at Arques (1589) and Ivry (1590), and entered Paris in 1594 as Henry IV of France. Assisted by his minister Sully, he organized his kingdom, encouraged industry, commerce and agriculture, and founded the silk industry by introducing the mulberry bush. His son, Louis XIII, by the aid of Richelieu, prepared the way for the absolute power of Louis XIV. Under Louis XIV France saw the most brilliant period of her history. Powerful abroad and secure at home, the country entered upon unparalleled prosperity. This was also the golden age of her literature. Racine, Molière, Corneille (who with Descartes, was the first to free the French language and thought from restrictions due to Greek and Latin influences), Bossuet and Fenelon are the greatest of French poets, dramatists, orators and philosophers. The excesses of the Regency and the indifference of Louis XV, reduced France to a state of poverty and bankruptcy and prepared the way for the revolution against which Louis XVI was to



struggle in vain. Louis XVI tried to meet the demands of the people by calling the States General and yielding concessions (1789). The people, however, feeling their power, took affairs into their own hands, and proclaimed a constitutional monarchy. The King and Queen were imprisoned and finally beheaded. The Revolution established a republic and a period of anarchy set in with the Reign of Terror, which though it secured success against the enemy abroad, finally fell, and the Directory was established. Napoleon Bonaparte overthrew the Directory and assumed the power. He established peace and order within the country and in his foreign campaigns carried the victori-



### NAPOLEON

The Consular Signature

The Imperial Signature

ous French armies over Europe. His ambitions aimed at an Empire and he had himself crowned Emperor in 1804. He gave France a code of laws, concluded a concordat with the Pope, and made France the supreme military country of Europe. Europe, however, formed a coalition against him, and he was defeated at the battle of Waterloo in 1815, when the throne passed to Louis XVIII, brother of Louis XVI.

The monarchy lasted until 1848, when the Second Republic was proclaimed, but after the coup d' état of 1841 the empire was again set up, with Louis Napoleon on the throne. During this period France took part in the Crimean War (1854) and the Italian-Austrian War of 1859. Many public works were built, railroads were constructed, commerce and industries flourished, great progress in education was made, and Paris rebuilt on a magnificent scale. Louis Napoleon's foreign policy led to the disastrous war of 1870, after which France was obliged to cede Alsace-Lorraine to Germany. The Empire was then overthrown and the Third Republic, which still exists, was set up with Thiers as President. During this period France has extended her influence and territory in South-eastern Asia (Chinese War of 1885), Tunis and Western Africa, and Madagascar, and has developed her army.

France has an area of 207,218 sq. miles, and a population of 39,601,509. More than half of the population is employed in agriculture; mining employs 250,000, while 5,001,743 are employed in manufacturing. According to the 1913-14 reports the exports amounted to \$1,375,060,000 and the imports to \$1,801,675,000.

According to the constitution of 1871 France is a republic, governed by a President and a legislature, which consists of the Assembly, sitting in two houses: the Senate (300 members), which is indirectly elected for 9 years (one-third retiring every 3 years) by delegates chosen by the municipal councils and the Senators, Deputies, Councillors-General and District Councillors of the Departments; and the Chamber of Deputies (584 members), which is elected for 4 years, by universal suffrage. The executive power is confided to the President, who is elected for 7 years by the two Houses united in National Assembly.

He receives \$120,000 a year, and a further allowance of \$120,000 for expenses. He appoints the ministers, makes all civil and military appointments, declares



NAPOLEON III

war with the consent of the two houses; but his every act must be countersigned by a Minister. The Conseil d'Etat, a special body composed of Councillors, Maitres des Requêtes and Auditors, all appointed by the President, and presided over by the Minister of Justice, gives advice upon the administrative points, submitted by the government. The constitution was revised in 1875, 1884 and 1889.

The colonies are looked upon as being politically part of France, and are represented in the Senate by 4 senators, and in the Chamber by 10 deputies.

The Minister of the Colonies controls the administration of all the colonies, but Algiers, being regarded as part of France, is under the Minister of the Interior, and Morocco and Tunis are under the Minister for Foreign Affairs. These colonies which are not directly represented in the Council of Deputies, are represented in the Conseil supérieur de Colonies, which consists of colonial senators and deputies, colonial delegates and other officials appointed to it. The French colonies include:

**Africa:** Morocco (protectorate since 1912; 220,000 sq. mi.; population 5,000,000), Algeria (1834; 343,500 sq. mi.; pop. 750,000 Europeans and 5,000,000 natives), Tunis (protectorate since 1882; 51,000 sq. mi.; pop. 2,000,000), French Somali Coast (1884; 46,000 sq. mi.; pop. 208,061), French Congo (1841-1911; 669,000 sq. mi.; pop. 9,000,000 of whom 1,200 are white), Madagascar (1895; 228,500 sq. mi.; pop. 3,500,000), Réunion (1642; 970 sq. mi.; pop. 173,822), French West Africa, including Sahara, Senegal, Guinea, Ivory Coast, Dahomey, Upper Senegal-Niger, and Mauritania (1,478,000 sq. mi.; pop. 10,465,072 of whom 9,000 are non-African).

**America:** French Guiana (made penal settlement in 1853; 30,500 sq. mi.; pop. 49,000), Guadeloupe islands and dependencies (1815; 688 sq. mi.; pop. 21,200), Martinique (1635; 385 sq. mi.; pop. 194,000), St. Pierre and Miquellon (1635; 93 sq. mi.; pop. 4,652).

**Asia:** French India (1674-1815; 196 sq. mi.; pop. 17,000,000); French Indo-China including Annam, Cambodia, Cochin-China, Tonking, Laos and Kwang-Chau-Wan, leased from China (261,690 sq. mi.; pop. 17,000,000).

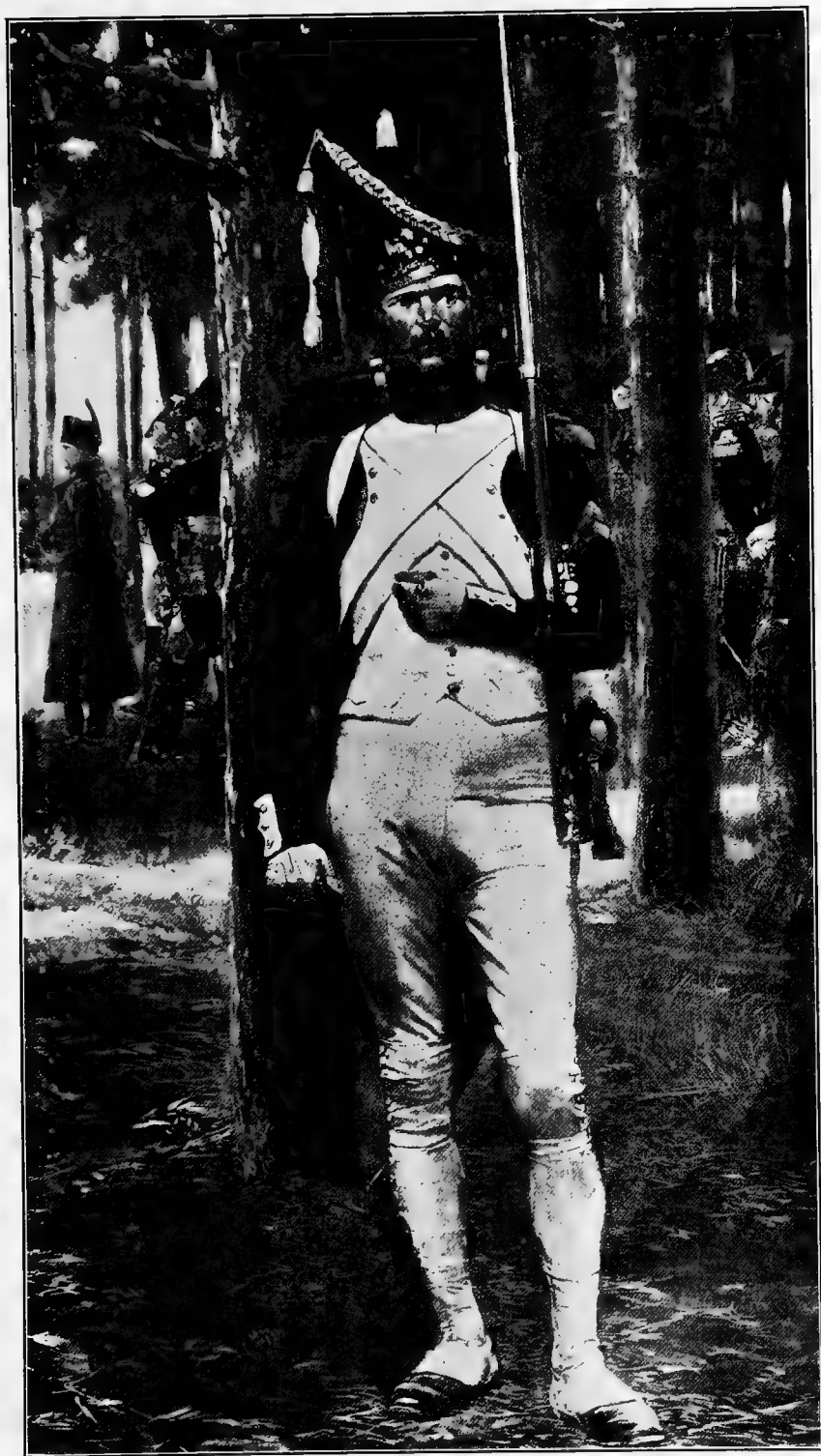
**Australasia:** New Caledonia and dependencies (1853; 7,650 sq. mi.; pop. 50,608), other islands in Oceania including Society, Leeward, Marquezas, Tuamotu, Moorea, etc. (1,520 sq. mi.; pop. 31,000, of whom ninety per cent are natives).



SOLDIERS OF HENRY IV

## THE ARMY

After the barbarian invasions of Gaul, each man was a warrior and there was no separate military body. Among Charlemagne's reforms was the reorganization of the army and the definition of the military obligations of free men. The 10th and 11th centuries saw the establishment of the feudal system of military service in France, each lord being obliged to supply his suzerain with a certain number of lances. This system permitted the nobles to prey upon the people and led to such excesses that the people petitioned Charles VII to establish a definite army and by the law of November 2, 1439, the King started a permanent army, from the Mercenaries who had served in the Hundred Years' War. He added *franc-archers* and *compagnies d'ordonnance* (heavy cavalry), but his successors continued to call in mercenaries and in the confusion of the long wars of Charles VII, Francis I and Henry IV, the idea of a permanent army was lost sight of. Henry IX and Louis XIII drafted the poor, vagabonds and peasants. The army consisted of regiments of horse and foot, each of which belonged to its colonel. Louis XIV, however, de-



GRENADIER OF NAPOLEON





CARABINIER (SECOND EMPIRE, 1868)

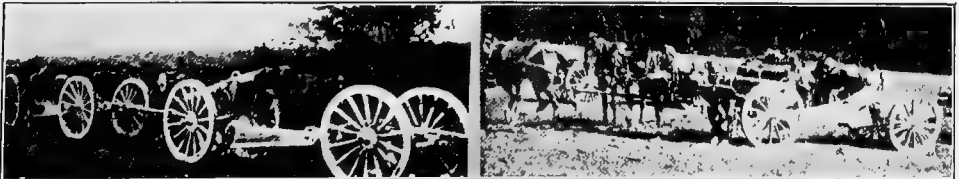
sired to have absolute control over his armies and to this end directed his war-minister, Louvois, to re-organize the army. Under Louvois' reforms, the proprietary system was modified, enlistment in the rank and file was voluntary for 4 years, and in place of the *arrière-ban*, a militia was raised by ballot (1688). Louvois founded companies of artillery, introduced the system of magazines, built up an excellent hospital service, opened the Hotel des Invalides in Paris as a home for old soldiers, and established training schools for officers. Thus was founded the first real permanent royal army, which has since served as the basis of all succeeding French armies. This highly efficient army made France, at the latter end of the 17th century, the foremost military power of Europe, and although the reputation of the army suffered somewhat in the War of the Spanish Succession, the war ended with French victories. During the wars of 1740-63, corrupt administration and incompetent leaders (with few exceptions) were responsible for the reverses suffered, although Foenoy was a splendid victory. The successes of the American War (1776-83) restored confidence, revived the warlike spirit, and more attention was paid to the drilling of the army. At the outbreak of the Revolution (1789) the royal army consisted of 224 infantry battalions, 7 artillery regiments, 62 cavalry regiments, totalling 173,000, capable of being increased to a war strength of 210,000.

More reforms were added in the early years of the Revolution: a national guard was organized, promotion from the ranks was permitted, voluntary enlistment was established. These reforms, however, proved disastrous to



## DRAGOONS

discipline and organization, and the army met with reserves in the first campaigns against Austria. To save the Revolution strong measures were necessary. Lazare Carnot was made minister of war, and compulsory conscription was adopted, by which an army of 1,000,000 men was raised. Carnot organized the infantry into brigades and demi-brigades of 3 battalions, created arsenals, and re-established military schools. The army was thoroughly trained and from these reforms the crude Republican forces emerged a well-disciplined army, able to win for the Revolution the glorious victories of Fleurus (1794), Hondschoote (1794), Wattignies (1794), Wissembourg (1794), and Ettingen (1796). These victories, however, exhausted the army, and in 1798, with the passing of General Jourdan's famous law, conscription for general





GROUPING THE COLORS: COLONIAL TROOPS

service began. Thus when Napoleon took command, practically the whole male population was at his disposal. He perfected the work of organization, forming the "corps troops" and cavalry and artillery reserves. But the long foreign wars had no attraction for the soldiers, and the number of *réfractaires* (men who refused to come up for service) increased, so that in 1806

Napoleon was obliged to anticipate the conscripts of 1807. Even the "Grand Armée of 1805-06 owed in great part its victories (Austerlitz, Jena, Auerstädt) to the fifty per cent of the old veterans which remained in it. The anticipated conscriptions failed and Napoleon was obliged to call in foreign soldiers, until his armies became a mass of men of all nations, and as later wars closed these avenues of recruitment, conscription became more and more severe. Only the genius of Napoleon could have controlled such a heterogeneous army and compelled the victories of Friedland (1807), Wagram (1809), Smolensk (1812).

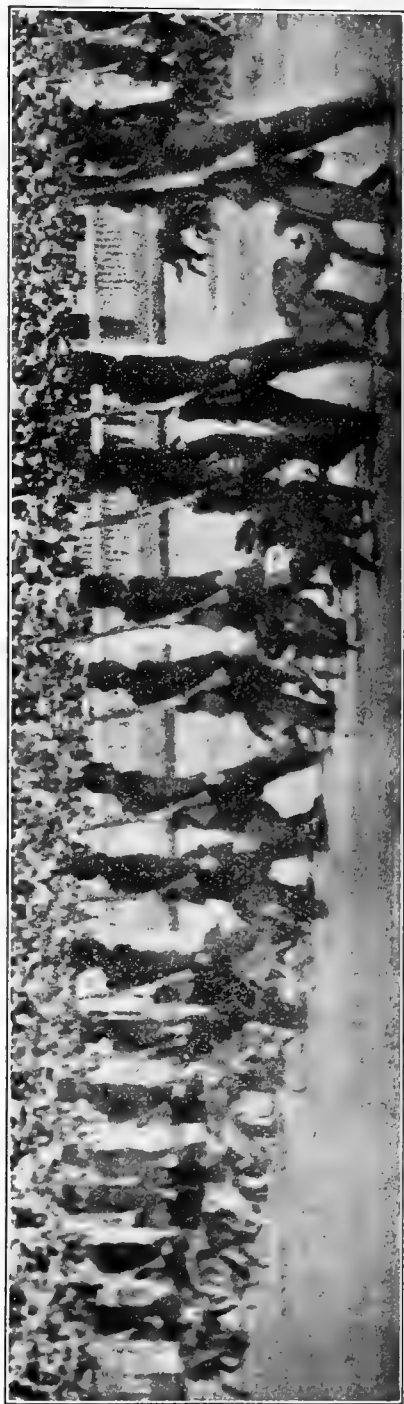
The Restoration abolished conscription, but was obliged to re-enforce it. Up to 1855, however, exemptions and substitutions were allowed, but in this year the law of dotation (or exemption by payment) was passed, thus ending a personal substitution, and the State provided substitutes for all those who paid a fixed sum. In this way, conscription gradually yielded to voluntary enlistment, and in 1866 of a total establishment of 400,000, only 120,000 were conscripts. During this period many changes were made in the organization. In the Crimean War (1854) the army was raised to 500,000 men. The old imperial guard was re-established, and the army won great fame under Napoleon III in 1859 by the victories of Montebello, Magenta and Solferino. The



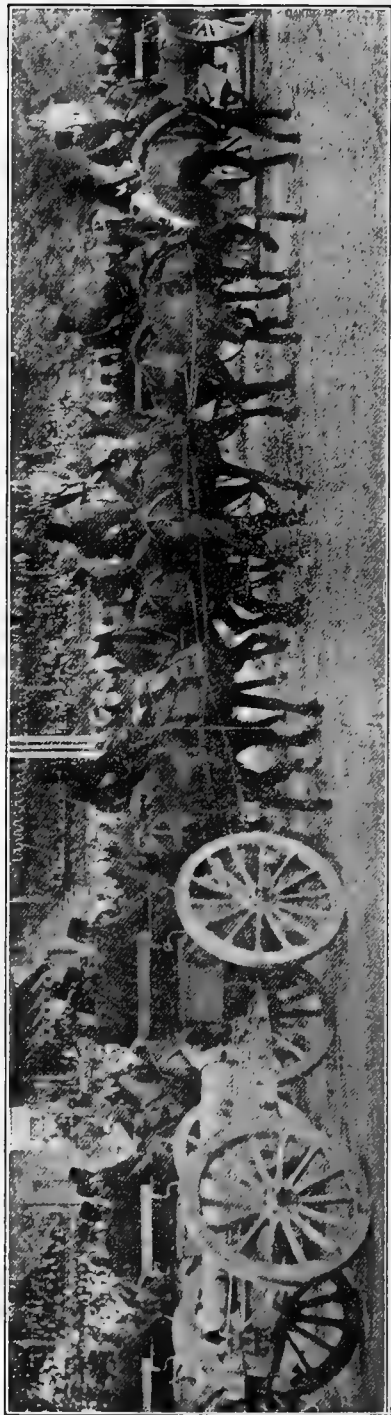


SCOTT & BOWNE  
1912

THE PICTURESQUE NEW UNIFORMS DESIGNED BY DETAILLE



THE DOGS OF THE HOSPITAL CORPS



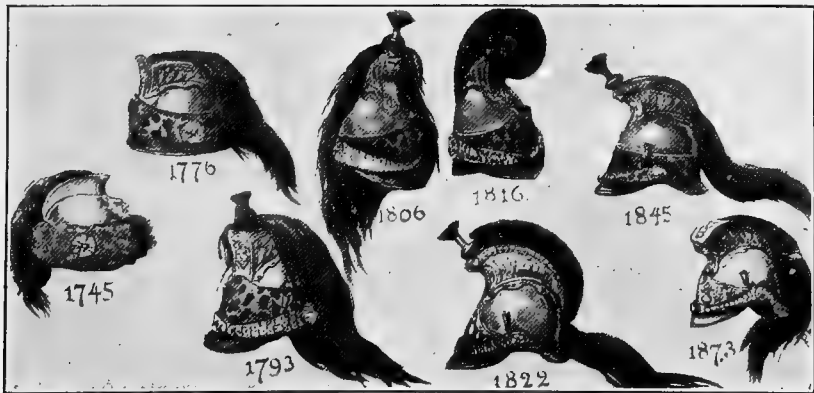
FIELD ARTILLERY



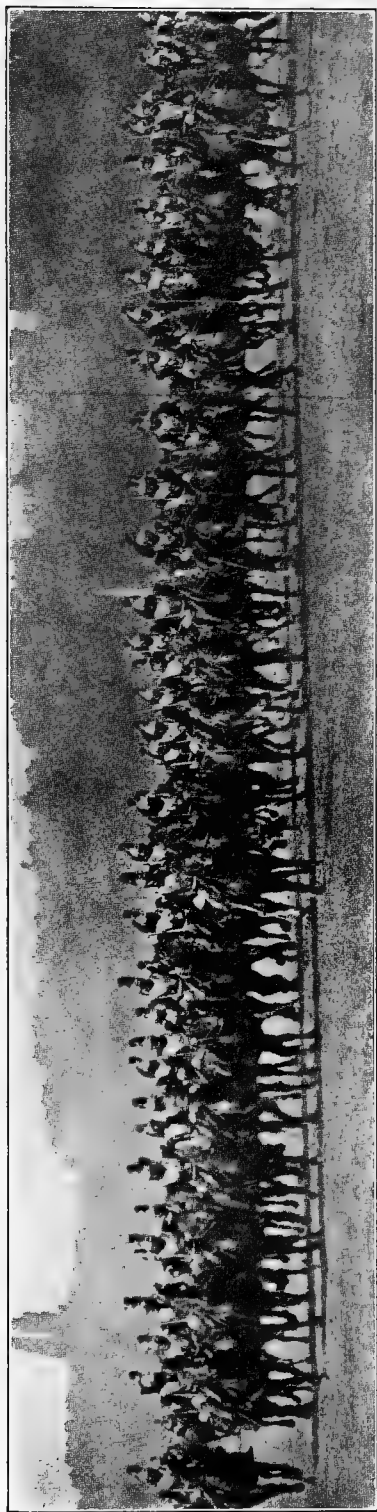
FIELD ARTILLERY ESCORTED BY DRAGOONS

campaign of the Germans in 1866 showed France that it was necessary to reorganize her army if she were to maintain her military reputation, and in 1867 Marshal Niel introduced his measure to produce a "nation in arms" based on universal service. By the law of February 1, 1868, military service was fixed at 5 years in the active army and 3 in the reserve, and an active national guard was formed in which all those who bought themselves off from military service or who remained after the annual conscription was filled (100,000 men), were compelled to serve. The first line army was to consist of 800,000 men (half in reserve), with a separate army of the second line. But his death in 1869 left the work incomplete, while the disastrous Franco-Prussian War opened in 1870. The field troops then consisted of 368 battalions, 252 squadrons and 983 guns; the peace strength was 393,000, the war 567,000. Within a year, the nation sent 1,700,000 into the field, but they were unable to withstand the well-disciplined and experienced German troops.

Since 1870 every effort has been made to bring the French army up to the



CU. RASSIER'S HELMETS

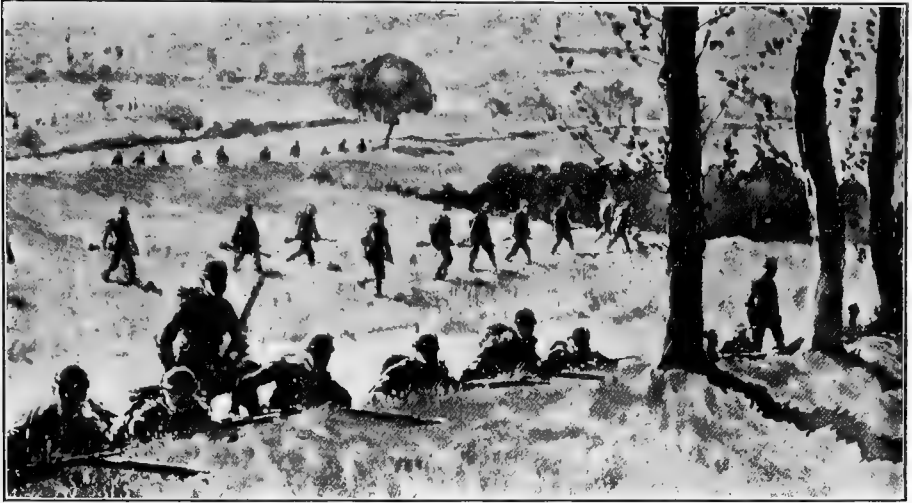


Cuirassiers on parade



Aviation Corps





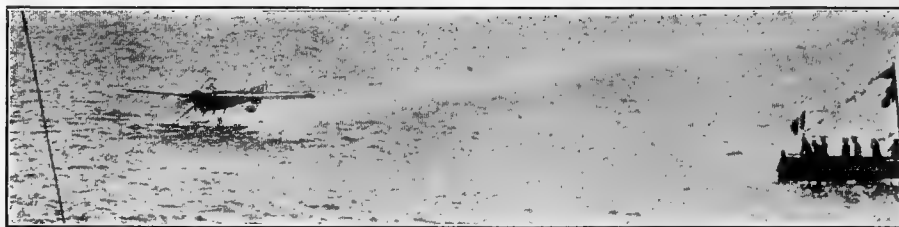
INFANTRY SKIRMISHING DURING MANOEUVRES

highest point of efficiency. Important recruiting laws were passed in 1872, 1889, and 1905. To-day the French army consists of the National or Metropolitan army and the Colonial, both under the Minister of War. Military service is compulsory and universal, no exemptions being allowed, except for physical unfitness, and liability to service extends from the age of 20 to 48. According to the Law of 1913, by which the nation endeavored to keep pace with the German laws of 1911 and 1912, the two-year term of service with the colors was raised to three, by which means the standing army was increased by about 230,000. After serving 3 years in the regular army, the soldier serves 11 in the reserve, 7 in the territorial army and 8 in the territorial reserve, in which division alone there is no periodical training. The Colonial army is entirely distinct from the Metro-



A BICYCLE BATTALION





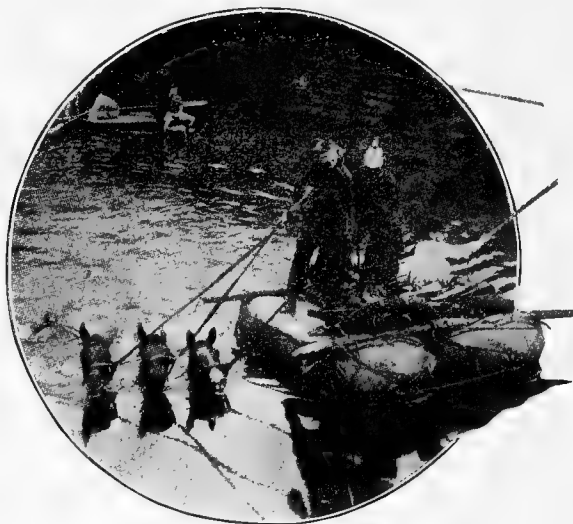
politan, is recruited exclusively by voluntary enlistment, and consists of garrisons (native and white) stationed over seas, and a force in France.

The peace strength (1913) of the armies in France and provinces close by from which troops can be readily moved is:

	France	Algiers	Tunis	Total
Staffs and services, etc.....	7,274	1,226	262	8,762
Military schools .....	2,828	.....	.....	2,828
Infantry .....	312,429	36,546	12,373	361,348
Cavalry .....	64,061	7,466	1,844	73,369
Artillery .....	92,237	3,532	1,802	97,571
Engineers .....	16,564	1,302	469	18,335
Train .....	8,020	1,859	613	10,492
Administrative corps.....	14,550	3,750	700	19,000
Gendarmerie, gardes répub. ....	24,827	.....	143	24,990
Saharan companies .....	.....	1,005	.....	1,005
Total Metropolitan army .....	543,790	.....	.....	.....
Colonial troops in France.....	27,944	.....	.....	27,944
Colonial troops .....	.....	56,686	18,206	.....
Total .....	571,734	56,686	18,206	645,644

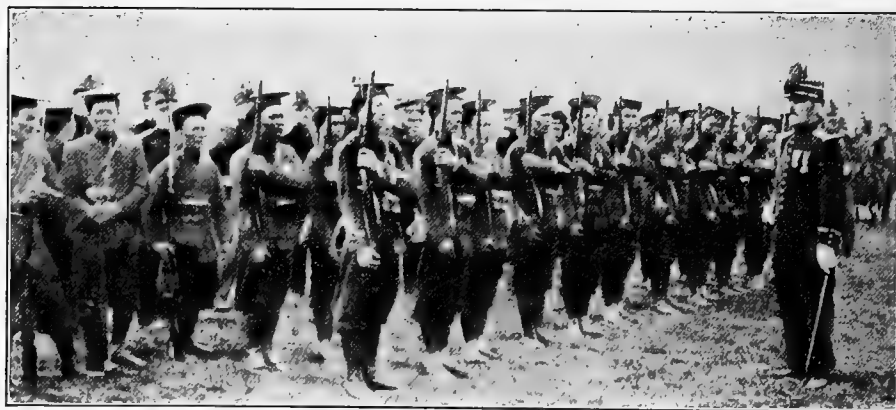
To these may be added in time of war 500,000 reserves and 80,000 colonial native troops at once available; 600,000 reserves of the second line (fit for field work), 500,000 of the territorial army (fit for garrison and covering duty), and 300,000 territorial reserves (trained for home duty only) could also be called out. Thus the total effective war strength would be well over 2,500,000.

France expended for armament during 1913-14, \$306,814,844.

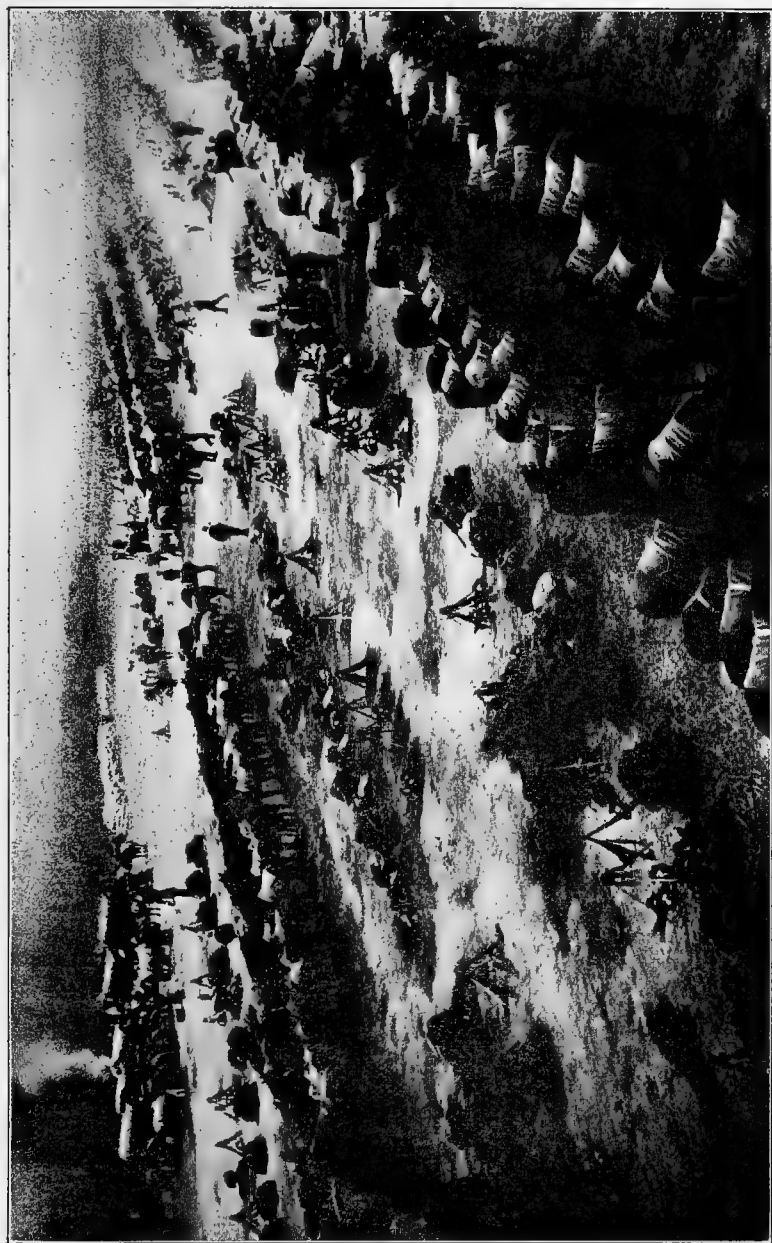




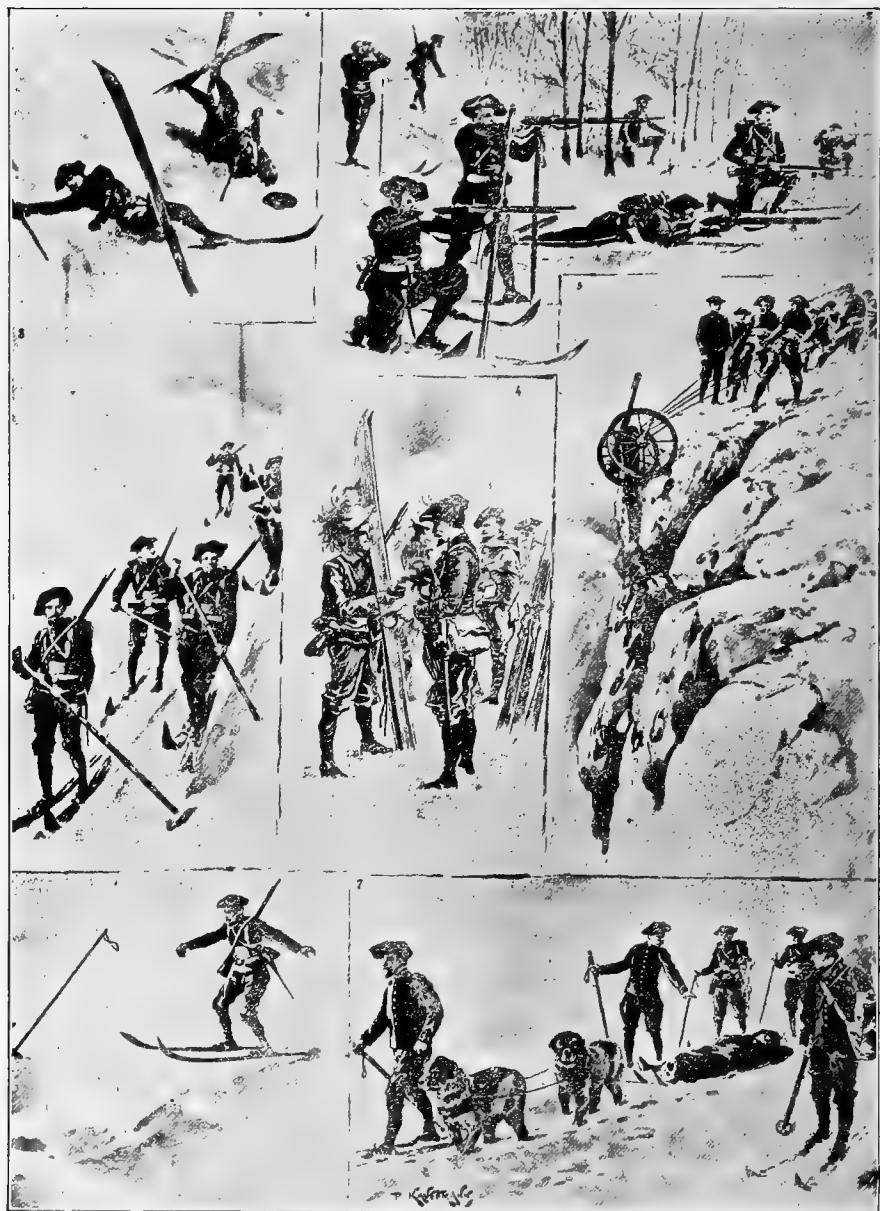
MANOEUVRES  
GENERAL STAFF IN CENTER



COLONIAL TROOPS



CAVALRY IN CAMP



THE ALPINE CORPS



THE BUGLERS OF THE CUIRASSIERS





"CHARGE"





QUICK FIRING GUN





## THE NAVY

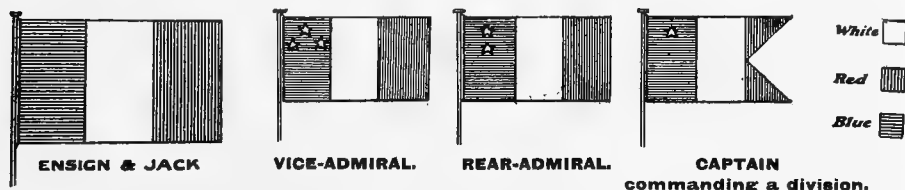


The foundation of the French navy dates from about 1180, when Philip Augustus began the task of recovering the sea-coast from his great vassals and from King John of England. On account of her geographical position, France has always had to have two fleets, one in the Mediterranean and one for her northern and western coasts. The King drew his navy from the feudal array (see *England, The Navy*), the national levy and his personal ships. Though many of the great vassals owned ships, they did not always supply them, nor were the coast towns much more willing to contribute their quota, so that the King was obliged to rely upon his own forces, which he in a great measure purchased or obtained from Genoa and Aragon. St. Louis (1226-70) created the first royal fleet for his first crusade (1249), built the first dockyard (Aigues Mortes), and created the office of admiral. His fleet consisted of galleys rowed by hired men (*turma*). From the middle of the fifteenth century the *turma* were replaced by galley slaves. Philip IV le Bel (1285-1314) opened a naval station at Rouen, which, however, disappeared in 1419.

The navy then fell into obscurity, excepting during Francis I's reign (1515-47), until the reconstruction under Richelieu.

After Richelieu's death it again disintegrated, but was rebuilt and well organized by Louis XIV (1643-1715). With the assistance of the ablest officers, Louis' ministers, Colbert and Lyonne, drew up a code of laws, the *ordonnance*,

### Flags.

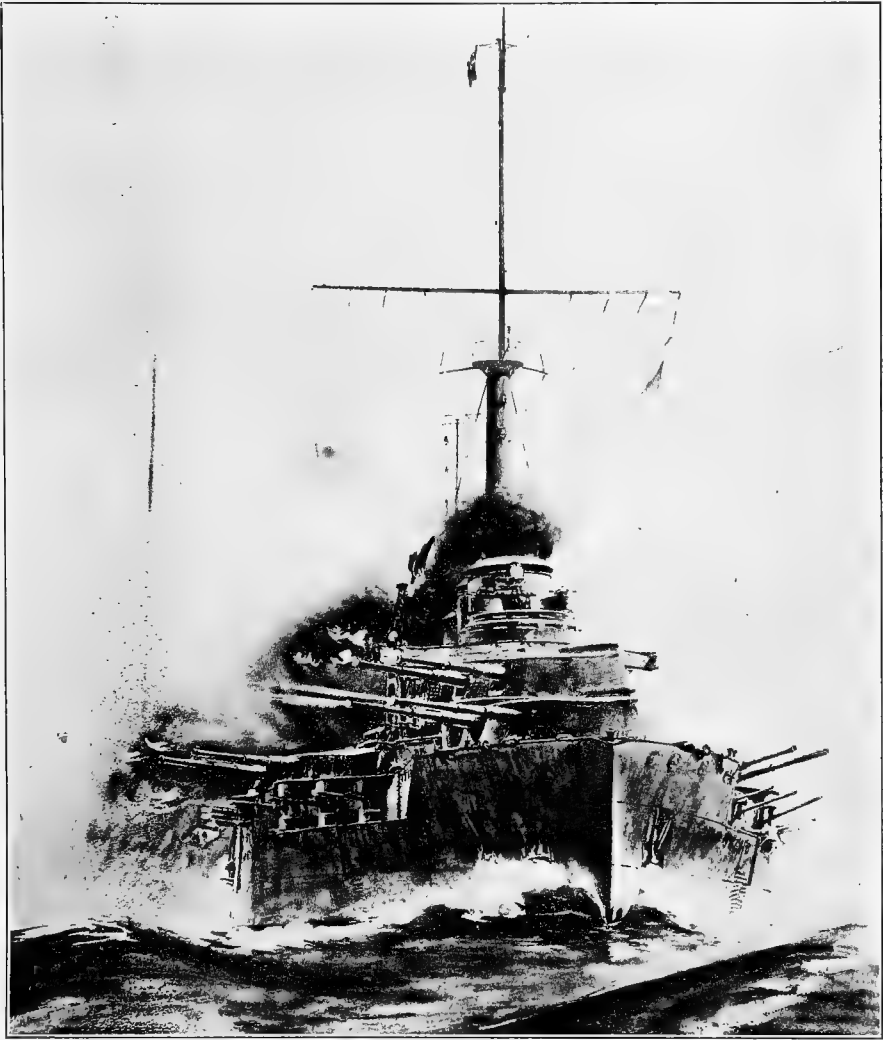


*Note.*—A vice-admiral wears his flag at the fore, rear-admiral at the main.



"VILLE DE PARIS" OF 1851

which was promulgated on April 5, 1689. This *ordonnance*, with revisions made in 1765, '72, '74, '76 and '86, was used until the Revolution. According to it, service was compulsory, affecting the inhabitants of coast towns and river valleys as far up as they were capable of floating a lighter, and so severe were the conscription laws that service was evaded, even at the expense of voluntary exile. The navy did not include a permanent marine force. Though in theory the administration was very fine, it was in reality corrupt, and the ill-treatment of the sailors led to many desertions. The noble corps clung to its special privileges, and maintained an insolent attitude towards the *officiers bleus*. At the beginning of the Revolution the long repressed hatred of the noble officers broke out in all its fury, and nearly all were massacred or driven into exile. Louis XVI



"PARIS" OF 1914

had, it is true, relaxed in 1786 the rule which demanded proofs of the nobility of all naval officers, but it was too late.

In the disorganizations and re-organizations which the navy underwent during the Revolution, all discipline was lost, and all attempts, first by the Republic and then by the Empire, to re-establish an effective navy failed. After the fall of the Empire, however, the navy steadily developed, and at the present day she ranks fourth of the navies of the world. During recent years special attention has been given to the development of submarines, as it is conceded that these would adequately protect the coasts and could be maintained at little expense. France also has paid special attention to aviation, preferring aeroplanes to dirigibles.



BATTLESHIP "SUFFREN"

The navy is manned partly by conscription, partly by voluntary enlistment, and partly from the army. The greater number of officers are graduates of the naval academy at Brest, but many are obtained from other schools, especially those promoted from the enlisted force. The navy department is under the direction of the Superior Council of the Navy (organized in 1909), and presided over by a minister of marine, a civil officer who is a member of the Cabinet. The executive head was the chief of the naval general staff until 1902, when the chief became a bureau officer, and all bureau officers became subordinate to the minister of marine. Since the law of September, 1912, practically the whole navy is concentrated in the Mediterranean.

The *personnel* of the navy consists of: 15 vice admirals, 30 rear admirals, 125 captains, 215 commanders, 754 lieutenants, 420 sub-lieutenants, 1,700 midshipmen, 52,000 men and a reserve force of about 42,300.

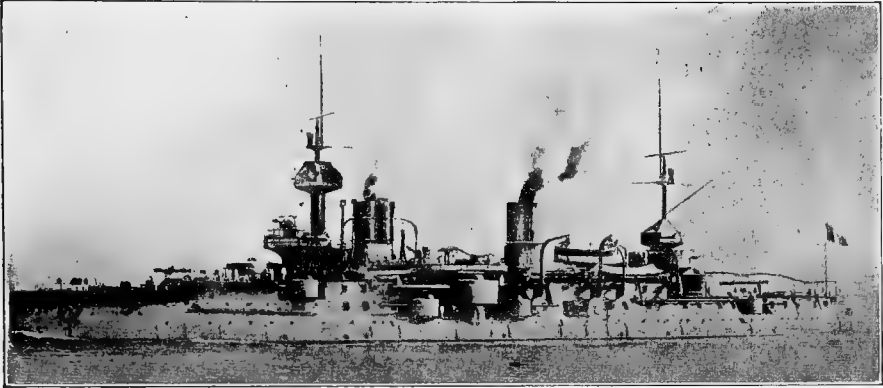
The French fleet shows a strength of:

	Built	Building
Dreadnoughts .....	2	9
Battleships .....	23	7
Armored cruisers .....	20	
Coast defenders .....	4	
1st class protected cruisers .....	5	
2nd class protected cruisers .....	4	
3rd class protected cruisers .....	5	
Torpedo vessels .....	4	
Torpedo destroyers .....	81	5
Torpedo boats .....	166	
Submarines .....	73	17

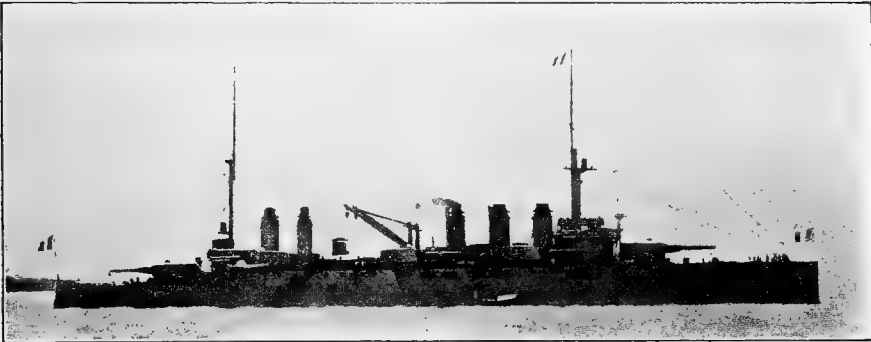
The navy expenditure for 1913-14 amounted to \$104,238,815, an increase of 67 per cent. over the 1907-08 figures.

The aeroplane corps is specially effective, and the 1914 air fleet includes: 14 dirigibles (8 more building) and 612 aeroplanes.

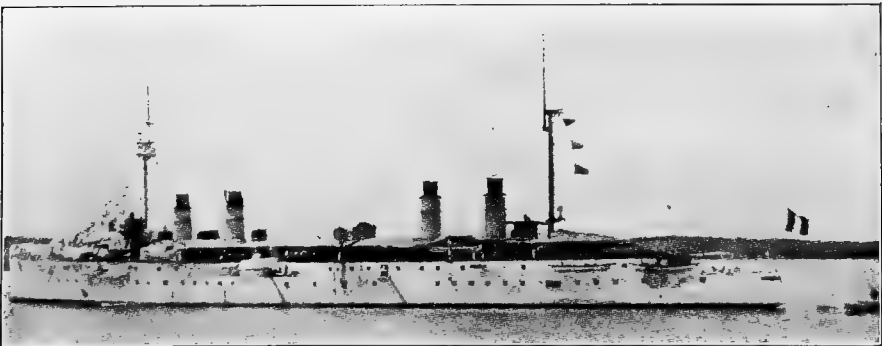




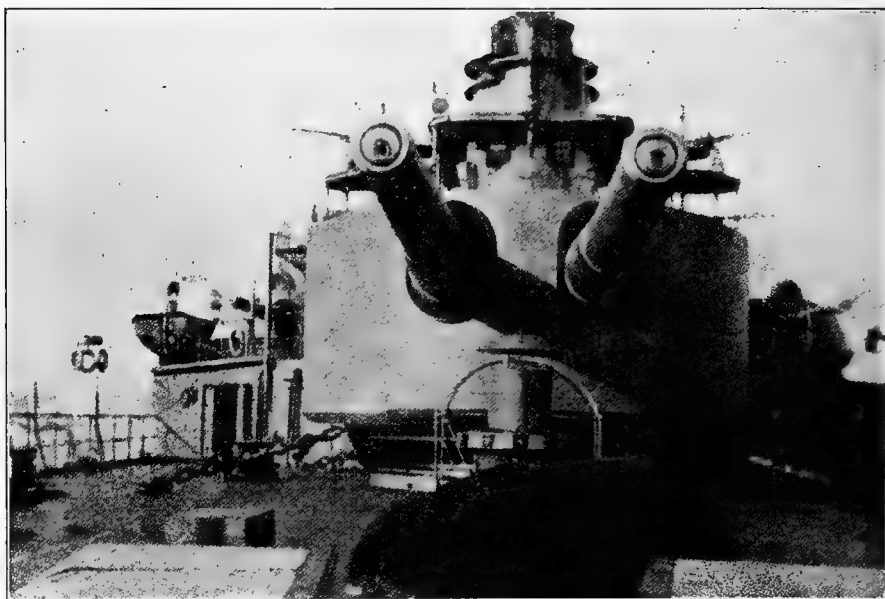
OLDER 2ND CLASS BATTLESHIP "BOUVET"



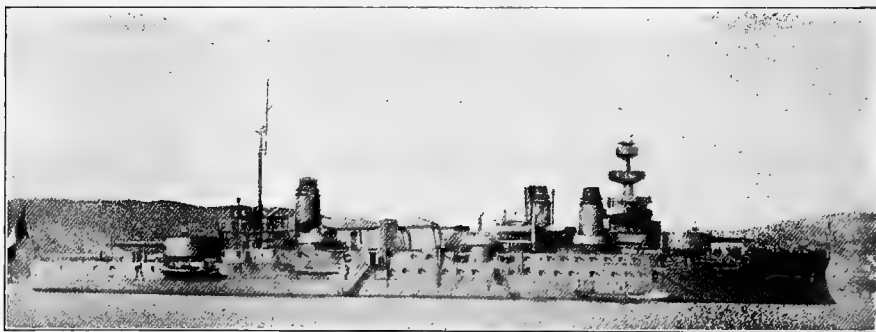
BATTLESHIP "DANTON"



ARMORED CRUISER "KLEBER"



ON THE BATTLESHIP "VERITÉ"



BATTLESHIP "JUSTICE"



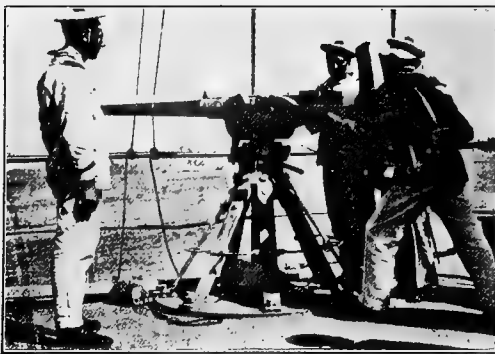
DESTROYER "BOUTEFEU"



TYPES OF MARINES



NAVAL CADETS

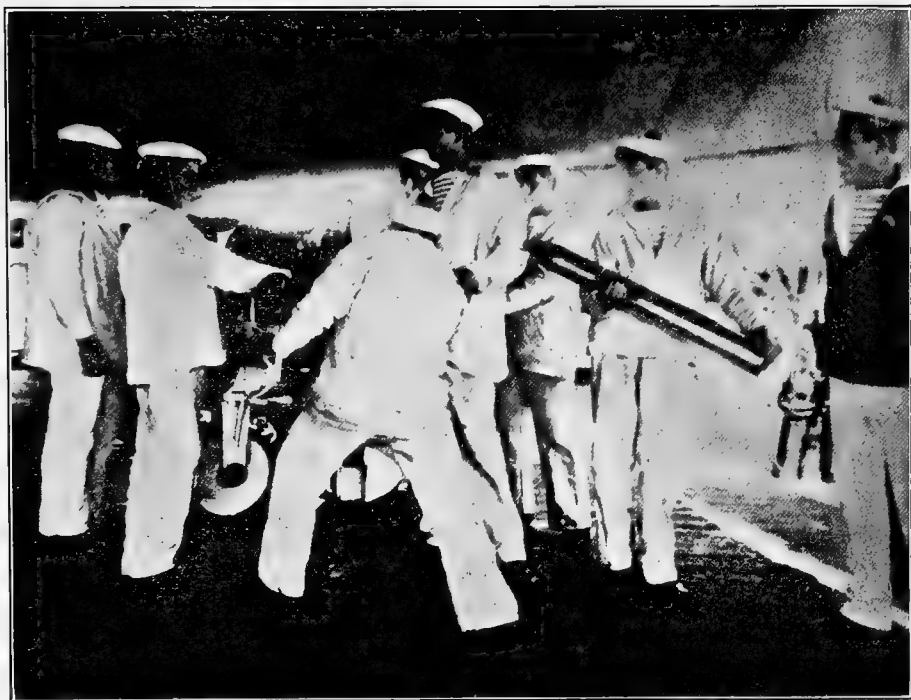


PLACING A GUN





FLAGSHIP "JULES MICHELET"



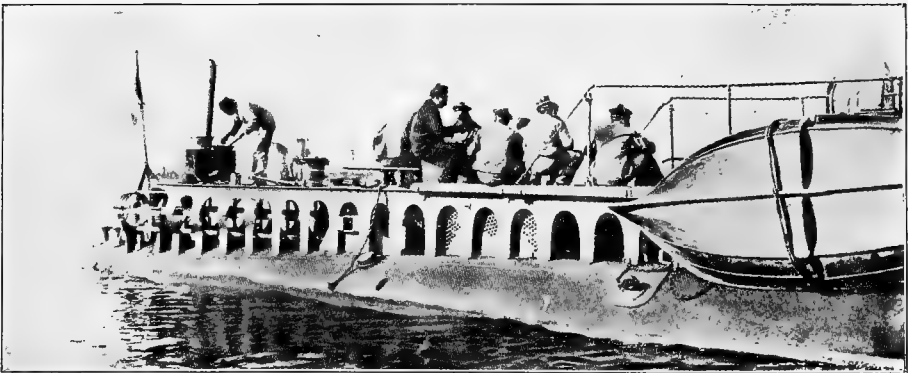
LOADING A GUN



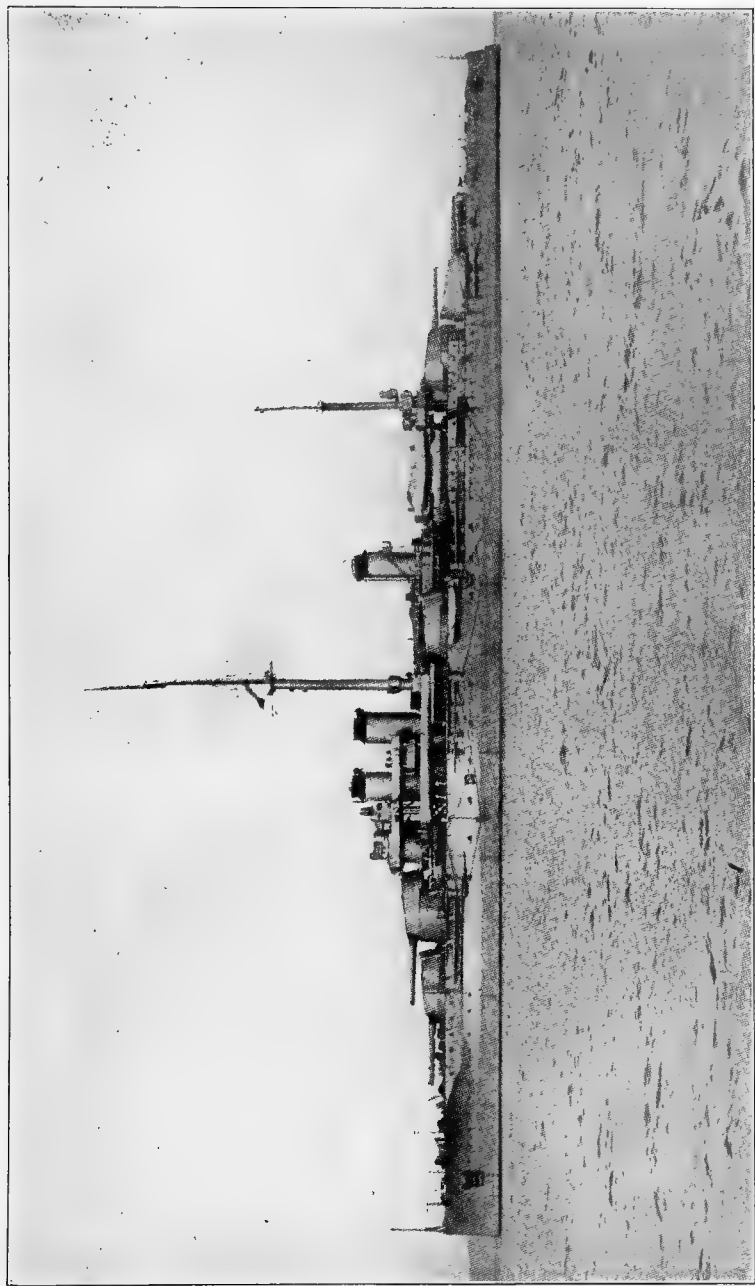
DESTROYER "CASQUE"



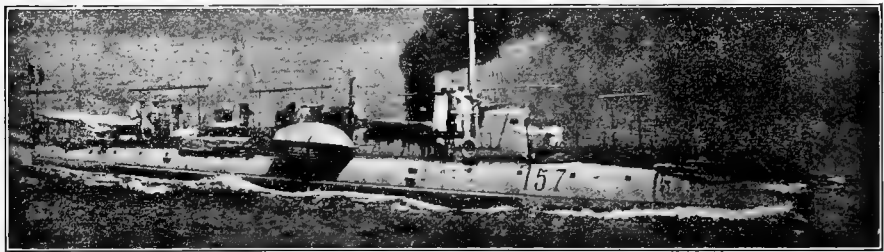
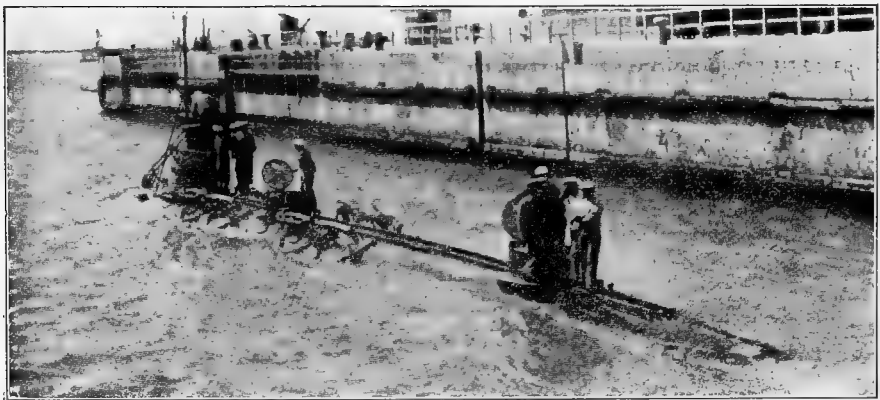
DREADNOUGHT "PARIS"



A MEAL ON THE DECK OF A SUBMARINE



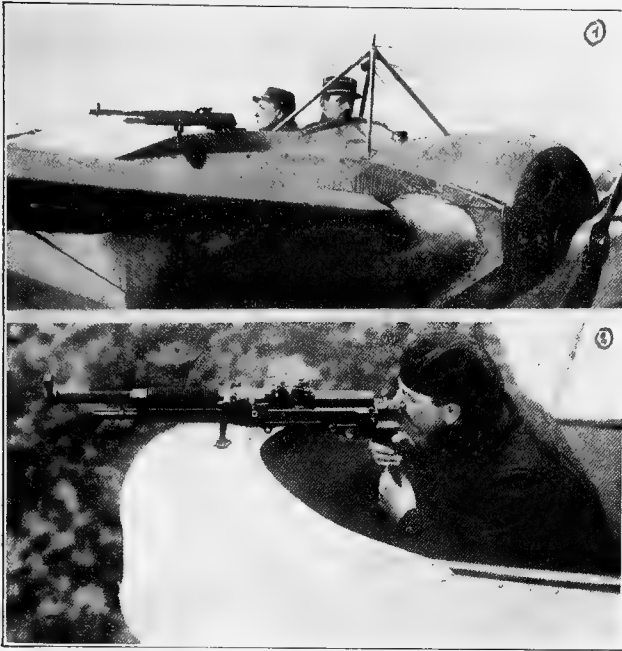
BATTLESHIP "COURBET"



SUBMARINES



SEA-GOING TORPEDO BOAT



1. ARMORED  
AEROPLANE

2. QUICK-FIRING  
GUN

ANOTHER TYPE OF  
ARMORED  
AEROPLANE

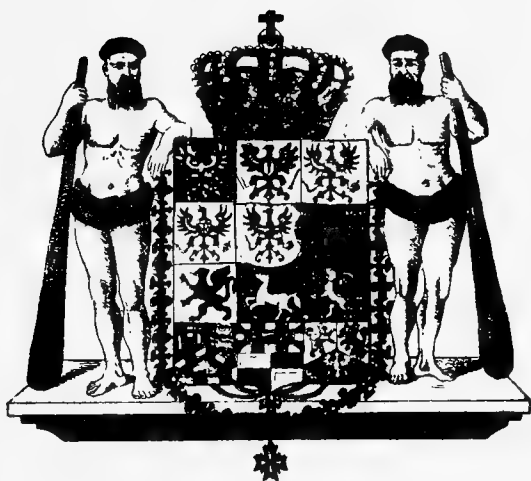




DROPPING A BOMB



Germany



Prussia

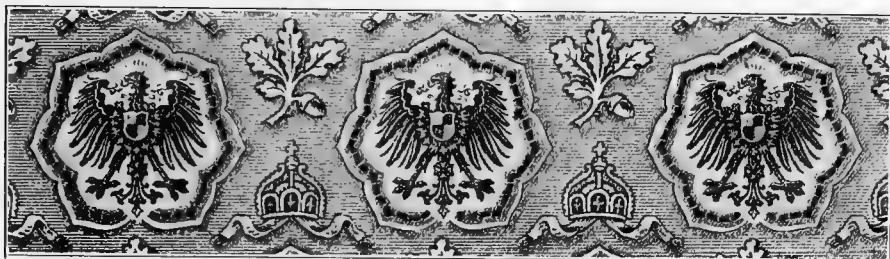




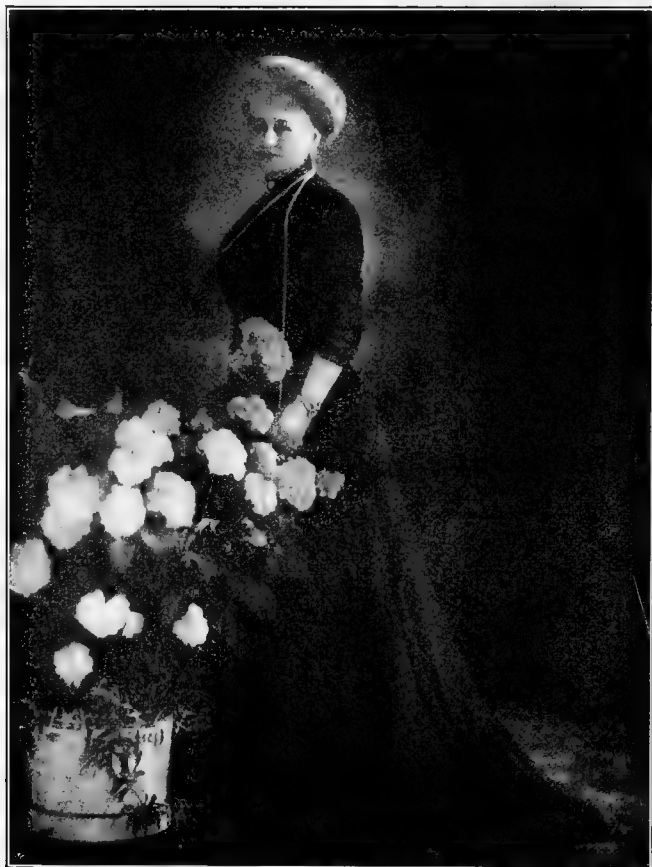


WILLIAM II





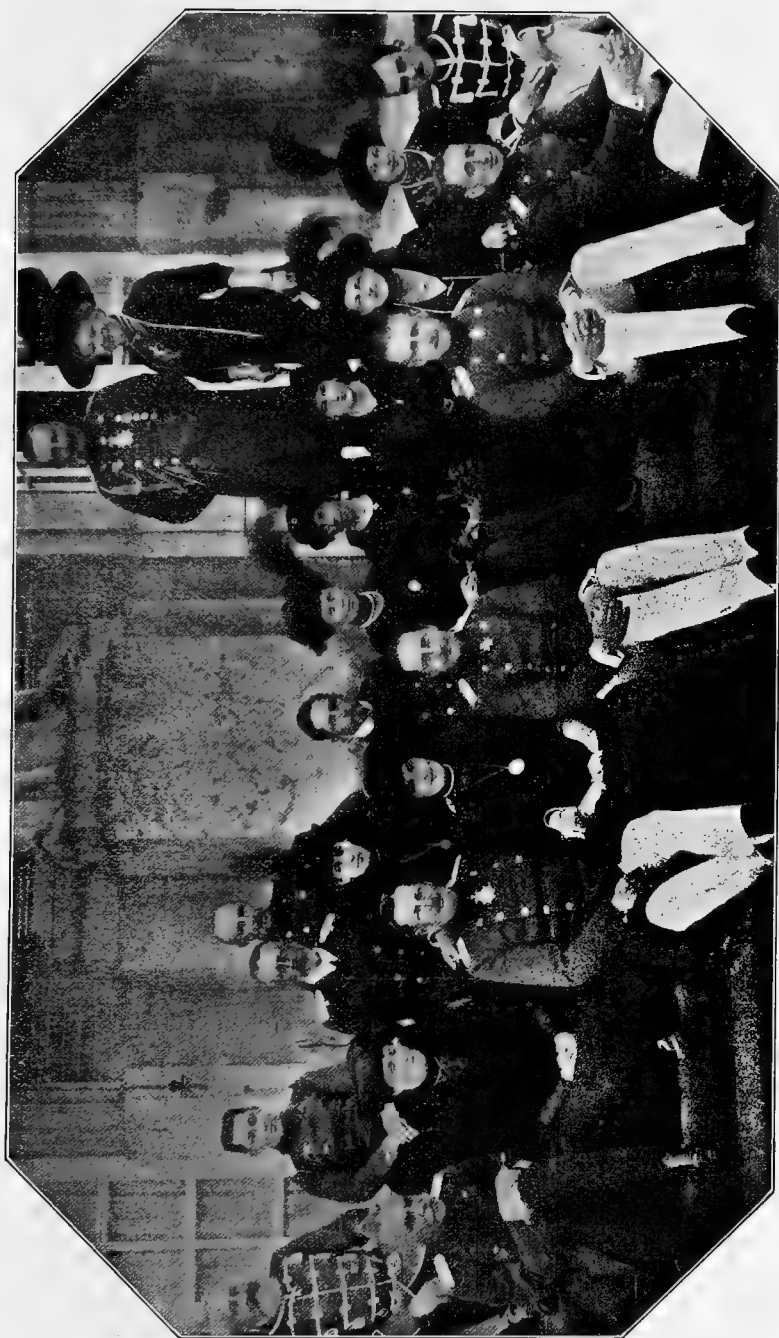
THE CROWN PRINCE FREDERICK WILLIAM



THE EMPRESS AUGUSTA VICTORIA



CROWN PRINCESS CECILIE AND HER CHILDREN



Standing: Emperor William and Empress Augusta

Back Row: Prince Adolf of Schaumburg-Lippe, the Emperor's brother-in-law; Prince Waldemar of Prussia, son of Prince Henry; Prince Henry of Prussia, the Emperor's brother; Prince Frederick Carl of Hessen, the Emperor's brother-in-law; Princess Bernhard of Saxe-Meiningen; Prince Adalbert of Prussia; Princess Frederick Carl of Hessen, the Emperor's sister; Princess Adolf of Schaumburg-Lippe, the Emperor's sister; Princess August William of Prussia; Princess Eitel Frederick of Prussia; Grand Duchess Ernest August of Braunschweig-Luneburg; Grand Duke Ernest August of Braunschweig-Luneburg.

First Row: Prince Bernhard of Saxe-Meiningen; Princess Henry of Prussia; Prince Eitel Frederick of Prussia; Crown Princess Cecilie; Crown Prince Frederick William; Prince August William, Prince Oscar and Prince Joachim of Prussia.



EMPEROR WILLIAM AND HIS SIX SONS

## WILLIAM II

Prince Frederick William Victor Albert (William II), King of Prussia and German Emperor, was born at Berlin on January 27, 1859, of Emperor Frederick III and the Empress Victoria (Princess Royal of Great Britain). Following the military tradition of his house, he entered on his military training at an early age, and in 1869 was made a second lieutenant. In 1874 he entered the *gymnasium* of Cassel, following the will of his grandfather, Emperor William I, who wished his education to bring him in contact with all classes of his people. From there he went to Bonn, where his special attention was given to law and political sciences, and in 1879 he began his military service. As a young man, however, he was not popular. With the exception of King Christian of Denmark, who sympathized with him, none understood his restless, sensitive, active, aggressive temperament, with its sudden fits of melancholy, though all, even Bismarck, saw that he would rule alone. His marriage was characteristic of him, for in spite of much opposition, he married on January 21, 1881, Princess Augusta Victoria, the poverty-stricken daughter of Duke Frederick of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Augustenburg. The marriage, which has been very happy, won over the Schleswig-Holsteiners.

From his succession (June 15, 1888), he took the reins of government into his own hands, and in 1890 forced Bismarck, the great Chancellor, to retire. From then, by force of his personality and will, William has been the ruling influence of Germany. That he took an exalted view of his duties and responsibilities is shown in his words: "I have vowed to Almighty God that, after the example of my forefathers, I will be a just and clement chief to my people, that I will foster piety and the fear of God, and that I will protect the peace and protect the welfare of the country, be helpful to the poor and distressed, and a true guardian to the right." He has proved a modern ruler, and his country's welfare and wonderful progress in industrial arts and commerce is



FOUR GENERATIONS—EMPEROR WILLIAM I, EMPEROR FREDERICK III,  
EMPEROR WILLIAM II, AND THE CROWN PRINCE

his monument. His tastes are strongly military, and he has lived his life in military terms. The perfection of the army has been his lifework, and to him the navy owes its great efficiency. His internal policy has been to advance German industry, and his foreign to build up a merchant marine and secure an outlet for the surplus energy of his people. His energies are untiring, and his interests include literature, art, music, sport, on all of which he can speak with authority.

The Kaiser and Kaiserin have six sons and a daughter. The Crown Prince Frederick William (b. on May 6, 1882), entered the army at fourteen, and is thoroughly familiar with all branches of the service. On June 6, 1905, he married Princess Cecilie of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, and the couple have four sons, the eldest, Prince William, being his grandfather's favorite. Prince William Eitel Frederick (b. on July 7, 1883), married in 1906 Princess Sophie Charlotte of Oldenburg. Prince Adalbert (b. in 1884), the third son, is now serving with the fleet. Prince August William (b. in 1887), is also in the army. He has devoted his attention to law and medicine, taking his doctor's degree in jurisprudence; in 1908 he married his cousin, the Princess Victoria of Schleswig-Holstein. Princes Oscar (b. in 1888) and Joachim, the youngest son (b. in 1890), are also in the army. The Kaiser's youngest child, his merry "Princess Sunshine," the Princess Victoria Louise, was married in 1913 to Prince Ernest August of Cumberland. The Kaiser conferred on the young couple the title of King and Queen of Brunswick, and they have a young son.

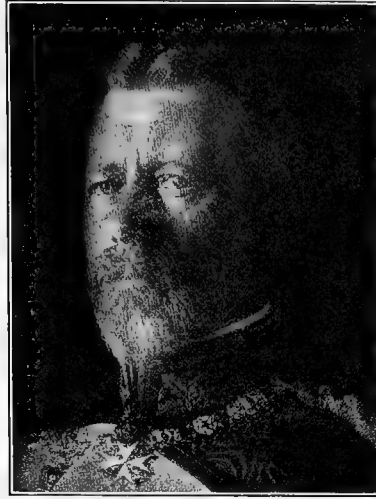




## THE HOUSE OF HOHENZOLLERN

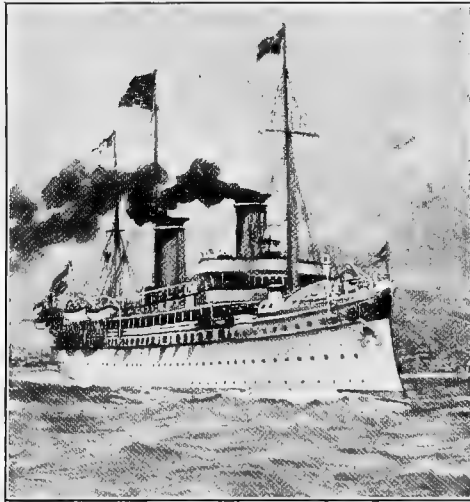
The imperial family name is taken from the castle of Hohenzollern, which was built on the hill of Zollern, near Hechingen in Suabia, and the family traces its descent from Count Thassilo, a Suabian noble, who lived about 900. Berthold (d. 1088), in his "Chronicon," mentions Burkhard and Wezil (Werner) of Zollern. Burkhard's grandson, Frederick II, was a favorite of the German Kings, Lothair and Conrad III, and the family occupied a prominent position among the petty princely families of Suabia during the eleventh century. Frederick III, by his marriage with Sophia, daughter of Conrad, Burgrave of Nuremberg, succeeded his father-in-law about 1192, and acquired lands in Franconia and Austria. His sons, Conrad and Frederick, ruled in common until 1227, when Conrad became Burgrave of Nuremberg, thus founding the Franconian line, and Frederick took the Zollern lands and founded the Suabian branch. The Franconian line attached itself to the Hohenstaufens, and on the extinction of that line to the Hapsburgs, Frederick III, Burgrave of Nuremberg, supporting Rudolf of Hapsburg in 1248. During the war of 1314, the Hohenzollerns sided against the Austrian house, but subsequently became its ally. Capacity to acquire and retain land as well as ability to rule with thrift were characteristics of the Franconian Hohenzollerns. In 1346 Burgrave John II became Governor of Brandenburg and in 1415 Emperor Sigismund gave Frederick VI Brandenburg as his hereditary possession, and made him first elector. The history of this branch of the house is identified with that of Brandenburg until in 1701 Frederick III of Brandenburg became King of Prussia. The Prussian Hohenzollerns consolidated their kingdom and Frederick the Great, Elector and Frederick II the Great made it the important German state. Under Frederick William I, Prussia took the lead in securing the unity of the German Empire, and in 1871 was chosen German Emperor. His grandson is the present Kaiser.

The Suabian line had gradually lost considerable territory by the several divisions of its lands, but regained prominence in the person of Count Eitel Frederick II, who received Haigerloch from the Emperor Maximilian. His grandson, Charles (d. 1576), received from the Emperor Charles V, the counties of Sigmaringen and Vöhringen. At his death the lands were divided among his three sons, Eitel Frederick IV taking Hohenzollern, with the title of Hohenzollern-Hechingen, Charles II, Sigmaringen Vöhringen, with the title of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, and Christopher Haigerloch (this line died out in 1634). In 1695, the two branches of the family entered into an agreement with the Brandenburg line, by which it was provided that on the extinction of either line, possession should pass to the other and on the extinction of both should pass to Brandenburg. After the revolutionary trou-



PRINCE HENRY OF PRUSSIA

bles of 1848, however, the Princes of Hohenzollern-Hechingen and Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen resigned their principalities, which accordingly went to the King of Prussia, and received from him annual pensions, and the title of "highness" with the prerogatives of younger sons of the royal family. The Hohenzollern-Hechingens became extinct in 1869. Prince Leopold, whose



IMPERIAL YACHT HOHENZOLLERN

candidacy to the throne of Spain precipitated the Franco-Prussian War, was the eldest son of the last of the Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen ruler, Prince Carl Anton; the second son, Charles, became King of Roumania in 1881, and should he die childless the succession would fall to his nephew Ferdinand, son of Leopold.



## HISTORY

Previous to the campaigns of Julius Caesar, the lands now forming the German Empire were occupied by barbarian tribes, chiefly of Celtic, Gothic and Slavonic origin. The Romans mention the Gauls, Burgundians, Marcomanni, Alamanni, etc. They were in constant conflict with the Romans, and the leadership passed from one tribe to another. During the time of Clovis, the Saxons dwelt between the Rhine and the Elbe, the Alamanni occupied what was later called Suabia, the Franks, Franconia, and the Bavarians, Bavaria. Under Charlemagne the German tribes were united for the first time under a single ruler and converted to Christianity. By the treaty of Verdun (843), which divided the Empire of Charlemagne among his sons, the lands east of the Rhine and the lands around Mainz, Worms and Spire went to Louis the German, and for the first time the people had a leader whose authority was confined to his own territory. The beginnings of a national life may be traced from this period. By the treaty of Meerssen (870), between Louis and Charles the Bald of France. Germany obtained additional territory, and assumed the proportions which it retained during the Middle Ages. It was bounded by the Elbe and the Rhine, the Bohemian Mountains, and included Alsace-Lorraine and the Archbishoprics of Mainz, Trier, Cologne, Salzburg and Bremen. The country was divided into the duchies of Saxony, Bavaria, Franconia, Suabia and Lorraine. During this time feudalism was introduced, and the power of the nobles began to overshadow that of the King.

Henry I of Saxony, chosen King in 912, vindicated somewhat the authority of the king against the nobles, overcame the Wends and the Hungarians, planned a new system of cavalry, and established the Margraviates of North Saxony and Meissen. His successor, Otto I the Great, elected king in 936, crushed the power of the nobles, conquered the Magyars, acquired the crown of Lombardy, and received from the Pope the imperial crown. His successors followed his example, and the sovereign crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle claimed as his due, coronation as Emperor from the hand of the Pope at Rome. Thus grew up the Holy Roman Empire, though Germany itself remained a State of divided nations. They had, however, a certain consciousness of national life, as is witnessed by the use of the word *deutsch* to indicate the whole people. After the death of Otto, the power of the Emperor declined, though Henry III (1039) wielded almost absolute authority. The Franconian line died out in 1125 and was succeeded by the Hohenstaufens, who ruled Germany from 1138-1208 and from 1215-54. This period saw the rise of the *minnesingers*, the building of many magnificent cathedrals, and the introduction of Roman law from Italy. The last of the Hohenstaufens proved

weak and ineffectual and the country was divided into a number of rival duchies and principalities. The right to elect the emperor had passed into the hands of a few nobles. At the election of 1257 seven only attended—the Archbishops of Mainz, Trier and Cologne, the Dukes of Saxony and Bavaria (who was also Count Palatine of the Rhine), the Margrave of Brandenburg, and the King of Bohemia. At this time also leagues of free cities were formed, the most notable of which were the Rhenish Confederation and the Hanseatic League.

In 1273 the electors chose Rudolf of Hapsburg emperor, and from then until the Peace of Westphalia (1648) the country was continuously engaged in wars domestic and foreign under such rulers as Louis IX (1314); Charles IV (1349), who founded the University of Prague and in 1356 by the publication of the Golden Bull definitely fixed the number of electors at seven (four secular and three ecclesiastical); Sigismund (d. 1437, after whom the imperial crown passed to the Austrian Hapsburgs); Maximilian I (1486), who established a supreme court of the Empire, and acquired Burgundy and the Netherlands by marriage; Charles V (d. 1558), during whose reign Germany was united with Austria, and included a large territory. During this period also, Germany passed through the crisis of the Reformation, suffered from internal revolts such as the Peasants' War, and engaged in the wars against France. After the Thirty Years' War the population of Germany had dwindled to barely 6,000,000, and she lost Metz, Toul, Verdun, Alsace, Western Pomerania, Bremen and Verden, while Switzerland and the United Provinces were made independent. Germany again became a loose confederation of principalities and free cities. Any authority which still belonged to the Emperor was transferred to the Diet, which alone had the power of making laws, concluding treaties in the name of Germany, and of declaring war. From 1663 it became a permanent body and was attended only by the representatives of the princes and the free cities.

Of the German states, Prussia now began to come into prominence. The Emperor Sigismund had given Brandenburg to Frederick, Count of Hohenzollern. In his hands and those of his successors the kingdom flourished. At the time of the Reformation, Albert of Hohenzollern, Grand Master of the Teutonic Order, became a Protestant, dissolved the order and received in fief of the King of Poland the Duchy of Prussia, which under Frederick William the Great Elector of Brandenburg, was declared independent of Poland (1657). His son Frederick was crowned King of Prussia (January, 1701). He laid the foundation of the future greatness of his kingdom by careful administration and by the founda-





FREDERICK THE GREAT

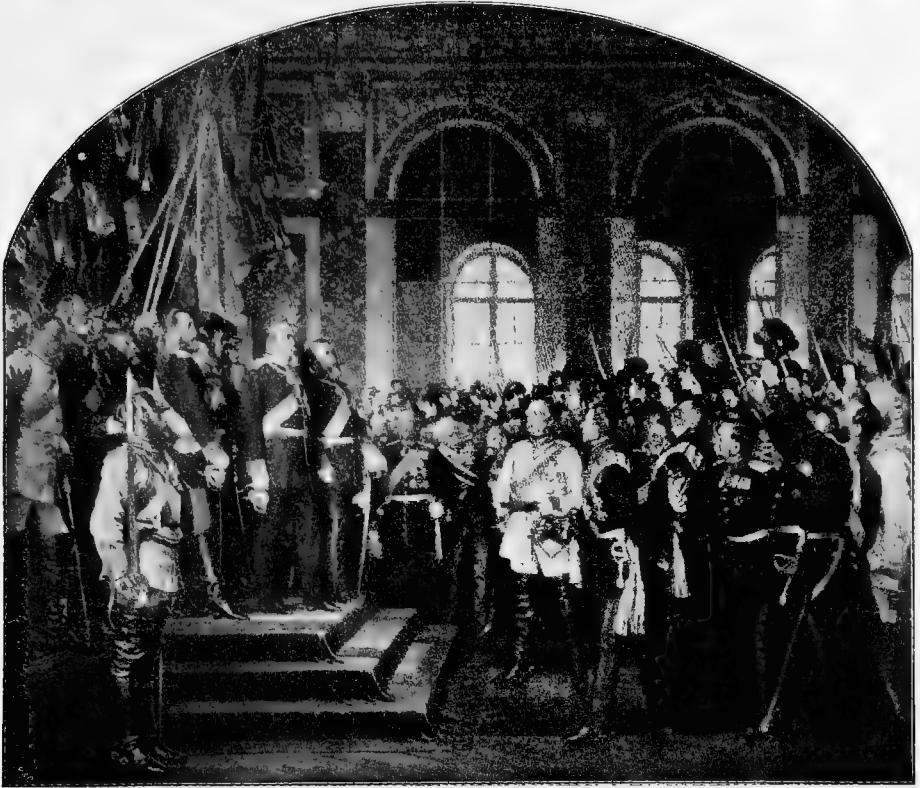
and schemes were offered for the revision of the constitution. By the Frankfurt Parliament it was revised in a democratic sense, though the imperial title was retained and made hereditary. It was offered to Frederick William IV of Prussia who would not, however, accept it without the full sanction of the princes and the free cities. Germany was divided into two camps, one siding with Prussian interests and the other with Austrian. The Italian War of 1859 changed the condition of affairs. Prussia gained immensely in prestige and King William appointed Bismarck his prime minister (1862). Bismarck felt that the question of German unity could not be settled without war, and determined that, in such an event, Prussia should be ready. To this end his diplomacy was devoted to the aggrandizement of Prussian territory and the training of her army. The victory at Königsgratz secured the triumph of his policy, and by the treaty

tion of an excellently trained army, with which his son, Frederick II the Great was enabled to enter European politics. He gained Silesia by the Seven Years War (1756-63), and West Prussia in the partition of Poland, and left his kingdom the foremost state of Germany, with the reputation of a formidable army. Long years of peace weakened this army, and in the struggle with Napoleon Prussia was completely defeated. Her humiliation, however, proved her salvation. Under the inspiring influence of Queen Louise, the people roused themselves to recover their lost prestige, and under Stein the army was re-organized and drilled to a fine state of perfection. Napoleon's retreat from Moscow gave Prussia her opportunity in the battle of Leipzig (1813).

The Congress of Vienna (1815) decided that Germany was to consist of a confederation of sovereign states, and during the forties various ideas of a united German Empire were proposed



QUEEN LOUISE OF PRUSSIA



THE PROCLAMATION AT VERSAILLES OF KING WILLIAM I OF PRUSSIA  
AS FIRST GERMAN EMPEROR



PRINCE OTTO VON BISMARCK



COUNT VON MOLTKE

of Prague the main outlines of the proposed German union were marked out. The leadership of the confederation was to be hereditary in the kingdom of Prussia, the legislative power was to be vested in a federal council (*Bundesrat*) and a Diet (*Bundestag*), elected by the whole people. However, the South German Confederation was in no hurry to join with Prussia too much lay between them. Bismarck realized that only a common interest would draw them together, and this he found in the Franco-Prussian War of 1870. In this war the German states united, and in 1871, King William of Prussia was elected the first German Emperor.



EMPEROR WILLIAM I

He was succeeded in 1888 by his son, Frederick, who lived but a few months after his accession, when the present Kaiser, William II, ascended the throne. During his reign the empire has made wonderful strides in industrial and commercial prosperity. The foundation of a colonial empire was begun in 1884, a first-class navy was built and the country took its place as one of the foremost powers in Europe, and with the formation of the Triple Alliance, Germany hoped to make secure that position.

The area of the German Empire, including Alsace-Lorraine, is 208,830 sq. mi., and the population numbered 64,925,993 in 1910, showing an increase of 4,284,504 over the 1905 census. Agriculture is a very considerable industry, employing about 10,000,000 and the mining which is carried on chiefly in Prussia and Saxony and other manufacturing industries, employ more than 11,000,000. The industries have been developed enormously in recent years, and in actual tonnage Germany stands second in the world. According to the statistics of 1913-14 the imports amounted to \$2,754,275,000, and the exports to \$2,274,875,000.

The German colonies include:

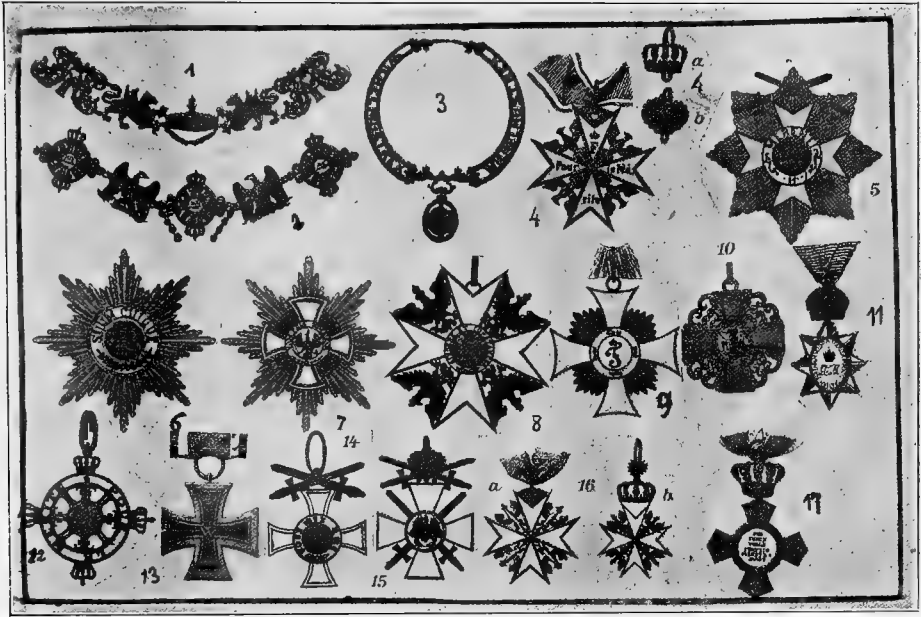
Africa: Kamerun (1884, 1911; 298,400 sq. mi.; pop. 3,748,720), Togoland (1884; 33,700 sq. mi.; pop. 1,031,978), German Southwest Africa (1884-90; 322,650 sq. mi.; pop. 94,386), German East Africa (1885-90; 384,180 sq. mi.; pop. 7,651,106).

Asia: Kiau-Chau (1897; 200 sq. mi.; pop. 168,000).

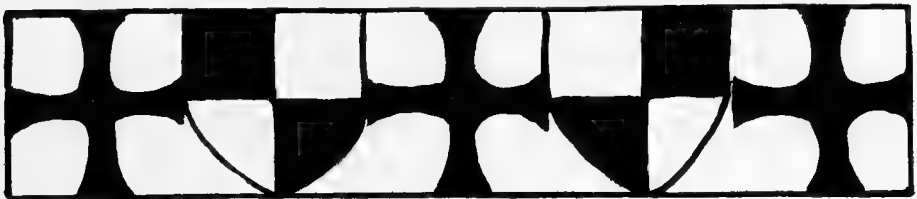
The Pacific: German New Guinea, including Kaiser Wilhelm's Land (1885-86), Bismarck Archipelago (1885), Caroline Islands (1899), Pelew Islands (1899), Marianne Islands (1899), Solomon Islands (1886), Marshall Islands (1886), etc. (95,160 sq. mi.; pop. 601,427), and the Samoan Islands (1899; 1,000 sq. mi.; pop. 35,000).

According to the Constitution of April 16, 1871, all the states of Germany form an "eternal" union with the direction of political and military affairs vested in the King of Prussia, who in this capacity bears the title of German Emperor. In his office the Emperor is assisted by a federal council (*Bundesrat*), which represents the governments of the individual states and free cities, and by the *Reichstag*, which represents the German nation. The Emperor has no veto on the laws passed by these bodies. The *Reichstag* is composed of 397 members,

and is elected by the people for the term of five years; the *Bundesrat* consists of 61 delegates appointed by the governments of the individual states for each session. The executive power remains with the Emperor, and he holds the right, with the consent of the *Bundesrat*, to declare war (if defensive), make peace, enter into treaties, and appoint and receive ambassadors. He is supreme head of the army, but there is a separate minister of war for the kingdoms of Prussia, Saxony, Württemberg and Bavaria, the minister of war for Prussia acting for all the other states.



- |   |  |
|---|--|
| 1. Collar of the Order of the Crown.      | 9. Order of Frederick.                 |
| 2. Chain of the Order of the Black Eagle. | 10. Order of the Lion.                 |
| 3. Order of William.                      | 11. Order of the Star.                 |
| 4. (a and b) Military Order of Merit.     | 12. Civil Order of Merit.              |
| 5. Military Order of Bavaria.             | 13. Iron Cross.                        |
| 6. Order of the Black Eagle.              | 14. Order of the Crown.                |
| 7. Hohenzollern Order.                    | 15. Order of the Red Eagle.            |
| 8. Star of the Red Eagle.                 | 16. (a and b) Order of the Johannites. |
| 17. Order of Ludwig of Bavaria.           |  |







DR. VON BETHMANN—HOLLWEG  
THE IMPERIAL CHANCELLOR



GEN. FALKENHAYM  
War Minister



ADMIRAL VON TIRPITZ  
Chief of the Marine



COUNT HELMUTH VON MOLTKE  
Chief of Staff of the Army



## THE ARMY



Before the unification of the German Empire, the several states possessed distinct armies, federal armies when required being formed from the contingents which the members of the union agreed to furnish, after the plan of the Holy Roman Empire. This state of affairs continued until 1870, when the separate

armies of the old confederation were remodelled, on Prussian lines into the German Army.

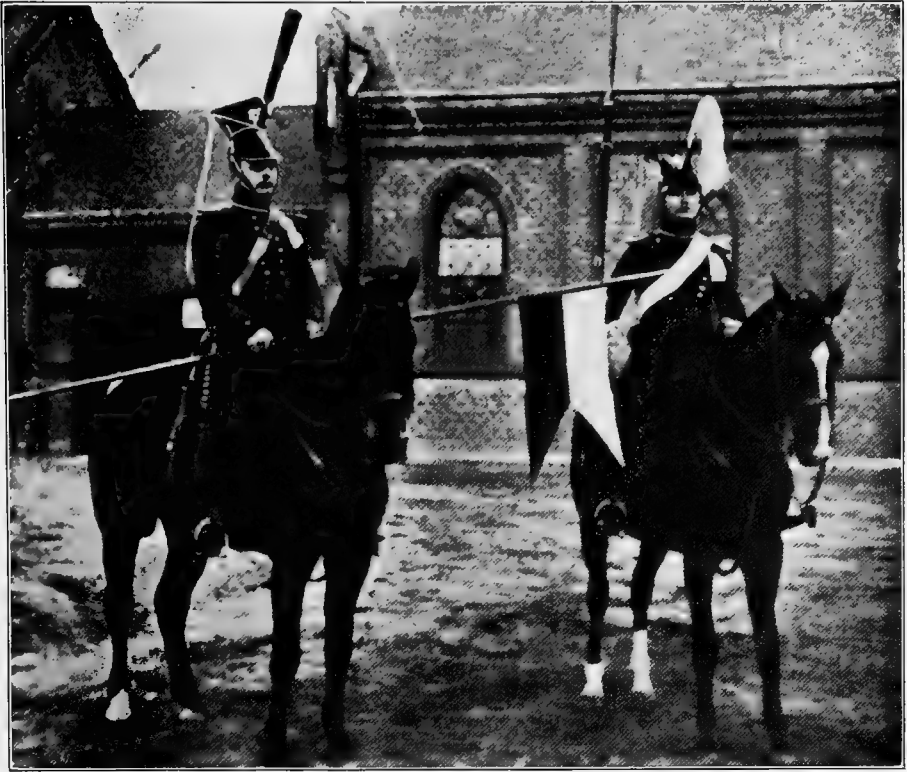
The **Prussian Army** dates from about 1630, and during the Thirty Years War, owing to poor equipment, suffered severely, but Frederick the Great Elector, who paid careful attention to the training of his army, avenged these reverses at Fehrbellin (1675). The Prussian army joined in the various wars of the period, acquitting itself honorably in the War of the Spanish Succession on many fields from Blenheim to Malplaquet. Frederick William I of Prussia entrusted the task of re-organizing the army to Leopold of Anhalt-Dessau, who devoted the years from 1715 to 1740 to the work of training. He had introduced in 1700 iron ramrods into the infantry service, and drilled the infantry to a point of perfection in which it was superior to even the Austrian and French, and though the cavalry had been neglected, the infantry was able to win the earlier battles of Frederick the Great. He devoted himself to the reform of the cavalry, with results shown in the victories of Hohenfriedberg (1745), Rossbach (1757), Leuthen (1757) and Zorn-dorf (1758). Before the end of the Seven Years' War, however, the old infantry had been replaced by foreigners, deserters and vagabonds, and when Frederick was dead, his successors were unable to manage these heterogeneous elements. They did little for the army, which, though it remained formidable in appearance, fell to pieces before the onslaught of Napoleon. The sting of the French yoke finally roused the people, and the armies (trained under Stein) sent to the campaign of 1813 were actuated by a national feeling. Prussia then devoted strict attention to the establishment of the army. Universal compulsory service was adopted, and by the law of 1814 the periods of service were fixed at 3 years in the army, 2 in the reserve, 14 in



TATAR AND UHLÁN (1741)



UHLÁN (1807)



GUARD UHLAN (1810)

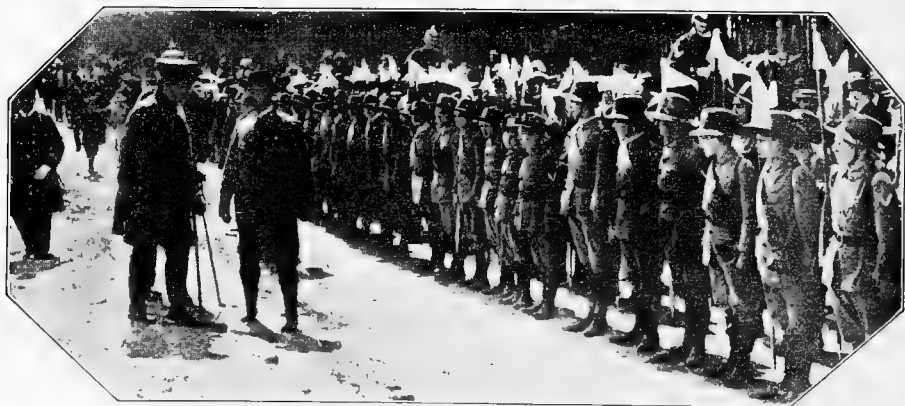
the *Landwehr*, and an annual contingent of 40,000 was called for, which was raised by the law of 1860 to 63,000 when the period of the reserve was increased to 4 years and in the *Landwehr* reduced to 5.

The **Saxon Army** distinguished itself in the wars of its country, particularly in those against Poland. With the defeat at the hands of the Prussians at Kesseldorf (1745), it lost its reputation, and after Pirna (1756), the men were obliged to join the Prussian army for the remainder of the Seven Years' War, though a few outlying regiments escaped to join the Austrians, and had the satisfaction of defeating the Prussians at Kolin (1757). At the outbreak of the French Revolution, the Saxon army numbered about 30,000. It fought at Jena with Prussia, and during the French domination, joined





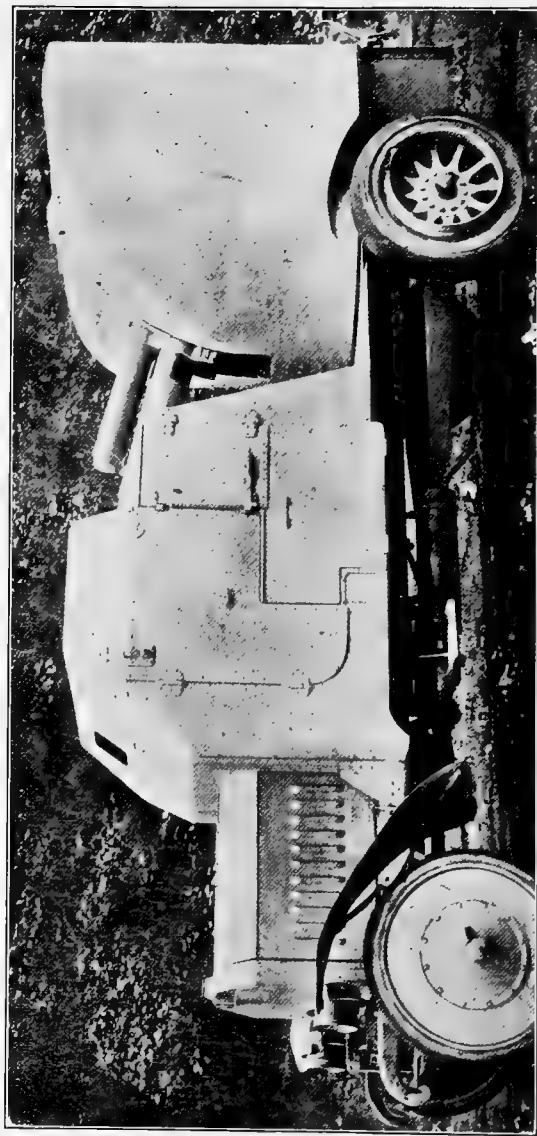
SOLDIERS OF THE PAST



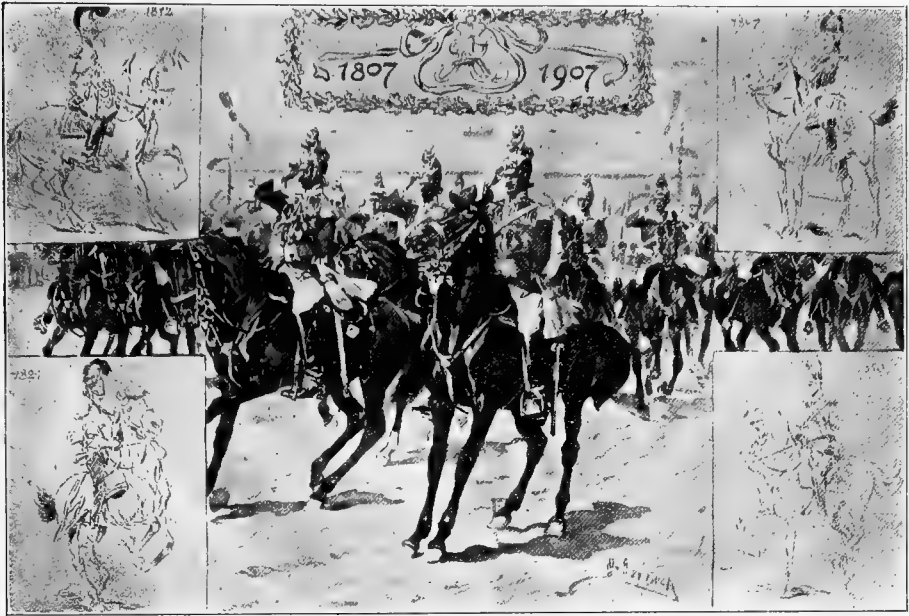
BOY SCOUTS, SOLDIERS OF THE FUTURE



DEATH HEAD HUSSARS



THE 71 CM. ANTI-AIRCRAFT KRUPP GUN



SAXON CAVALRY

Napoleon, who rewarded the Elector of Saxony by recognizing him as king and increasing his territory. After Leipzig (1813), the King lost much of his lands and the army was reconstituted on a smaller scale. Saxony shared with Austria the defeat of Königsgratz (1866), though the army was distinguished for its courage and steadiness. Saxony joined the North German Confederation, and her army formed the XII corps of the Great German army and delivered the decisive blow at Gravelotte (1870). The Saxon army is now organized on Prussian lines, and forms 2 army corps of the German army. The Emperor, with the King of Saxony, names the officers for higher commands, but Saxony retains her separate war minister and budget.

The **Bavarian Army** also dates from the Thirty Years' War, in which the forces commanded by Count Tilly won great fame at the battles of White Mountain (1620), Stadlton (1623) and Lutter (1626). The army took part in almost every war between France and Austria, and served under Napoleon in the campaigns of 1805-06, for which services Napoleon made Bavaria a kingdom. Bavaria fought against Prussia in 1866, but was defeated, and joined with her in the Franco-Prussian war, distinguishing itself at Sedan and on the Loire.







BAVARIAN INFANTRY CHARGE

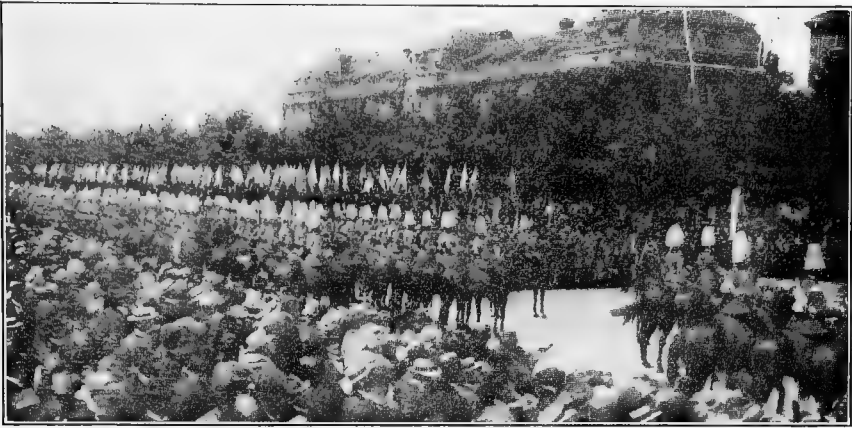
The Württemberg arm joined the Bavarians in 1866, but after 1870 went into the Empire. The **Hanoverian** and **Hessian** armies (which furnished troops to Great Britain during the American War of Independence) also joined in the Franco-Prussian War.

According to the constitution of April 16, 1871, all the land forces of the Empire must form a united army in peace and war, and must unconditionally obey the Emperor's orders, though the Bavarian soldiers are exempt from taking the oath of fidelity in time of peace.

Military service begins at the age of 20 (in time of war volunteers of 17 may be called for), and each soldier spends 7 years in the regular army



LOCATING THE ENEMY, QUICK-FIRING GUN



CAVALRY PARADE IN MUNICH

(including years spent in the reserve). For the 5 following years he is with the 1st Levy of the *Landwehr* or 2nd Line Army, and trains during this time for two periods of from 8 to 14 days. Until March 31st of the year in which he completes his 39th year, he belongs to the 2nd Levy of the *Landwehr*, but undergoes no training during this period. During their service in the regular army, members of the cavalry and horse artillery spend three years with the colors, while those in the other branches of the service spend two. All soldiers finally pass for 6 years into the 2d ban of the *Landsturm*, a body purely for home defence. The first ban of the *Landsturm* is comprised of untrained men ranging from 17 to 39 years of age. University young men are admitted as volunteers and serve one year, defraying their own expenses. They supply almost all the reserve and *Landwehr* officers. The *Ersatz* reserve is composed of men of 20 who are in excess of the numbers required



STUDYING A MAP DURING MANOEUVRES



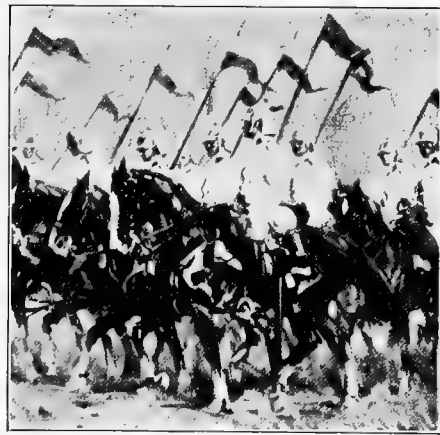
CUIRASSIER



THE EMPEROR AT MANOEUVRES



UHLAN



CUIRRASSIERS



for the annual recruits, and they receive 3 trainings of 10, 6 and 4 weeks respectively. This force supplies the waste of war and some of its members are also trained in special non-combatant duties.

Germany revises her military policy every 5 years. A law was passed in 1911 to secure a peace strength of 515,221 by 1915-16, but before it could be fulfilled, Germany, fearing lest a change in the balance of military power should result on account of the first Balkan War, startled the world by increasing (1912) her peace strength by 136,000 men. And in 1913, 5 aeroplane battalions, mustering 17 companies, were added to the 24 dirigibles already in military charge. The army now consists of: 651 battalions, 555 squadrons, 633 batteries, 226 batteries of heavy and fortress artillery, 44 pioneer battalions, with certain technical troops in addition, 21 of communication troops and 26 of train, all these units at a high piece effective.

The following table gives the peace establishment in 1913:

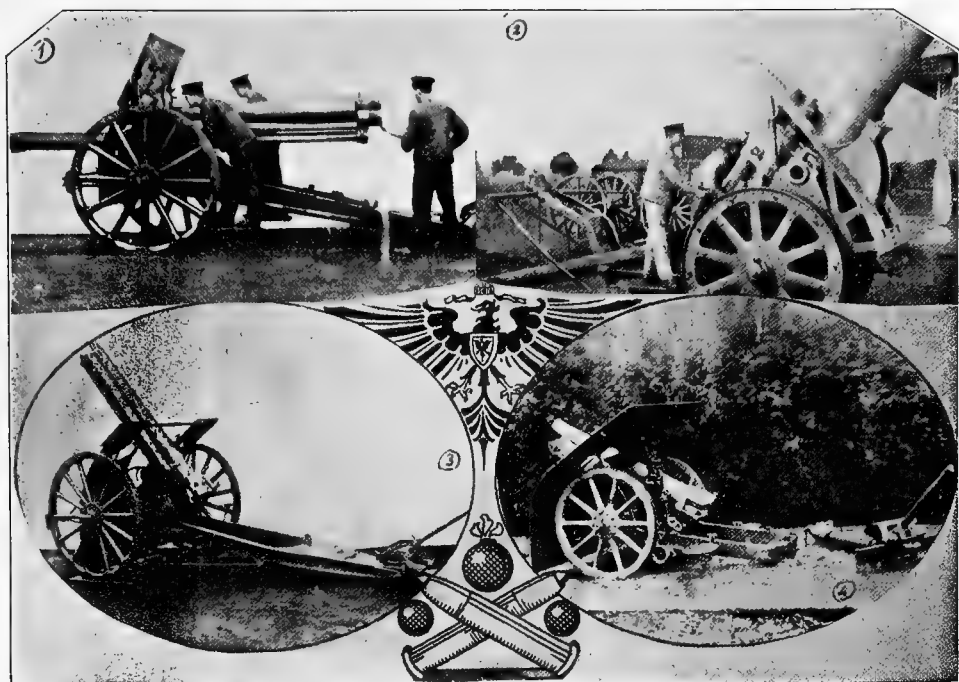
	Officers	Non. Com. Officers & Men
Infantry, 217 regiments .....	16,578	471,796
Rifles (Jäger), 18 battalions .....	620	15,134
Machine gun sections, 26.....	134	2,294
District Headquarters, 317 .....	1,067	6,593
Cavalry, 110 regiments .....	3,696	82,007
Field Artillery, 100 regiments .....	4,692	86,777
Foot Artillery, 24 regiments .....	1,469	33,230
Pioneers, 35 battalions .....	1,046	22,999
Railway, telegraph balloon units .....	935	18,006
Train, 25 battalions .....	631	10,961
Small miscellaneous corps .....	785	2,040
Staff, etc. ....	3,651	1,660
Total .....	35,304	753,497

The total war strength approximates 4,350,000 men, including the field army and its reserve formation, the *Landwehr* (1,800,000) and trained men of the *Landsturm* (800,000), but the highly trained and vigorous 1st line would perhaps not greatly exceed 1,500,000.



FIELD ARTILLERY GOING INTO ACTION



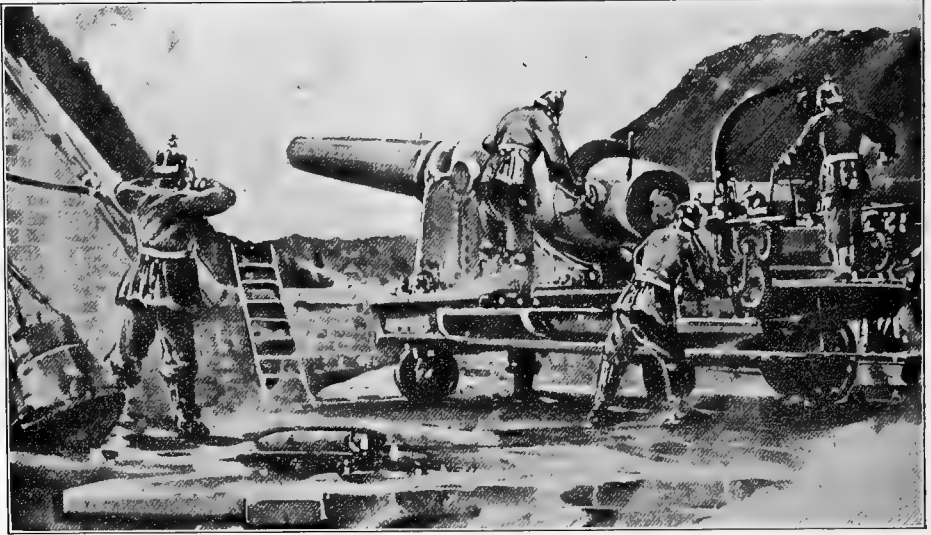


1. 10.5 CM. SIEGE GUN. 2. 28 CM. MORTAR GUN. 3. 7.5 CM. ANTI-AIR CANNON. 4. 7.5 CM. MOUNTAIN GUN.

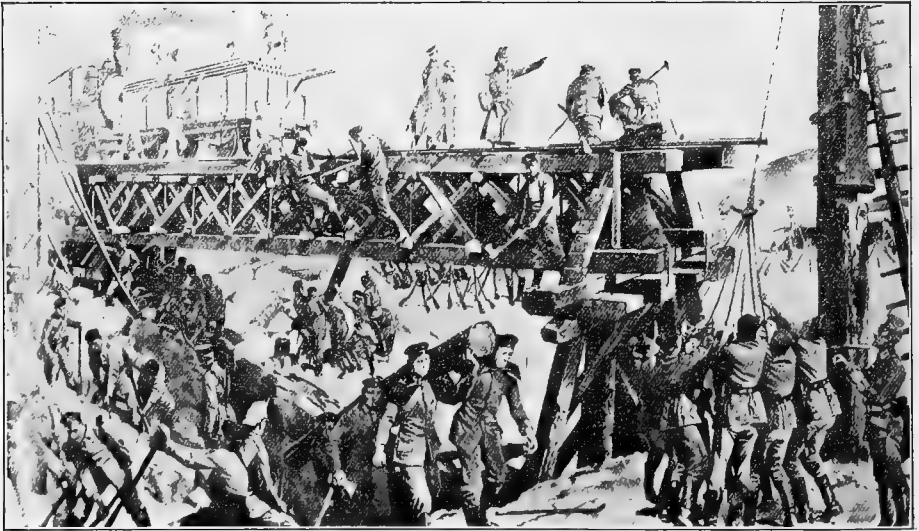


FIELD ARTILLERY IN ACTION





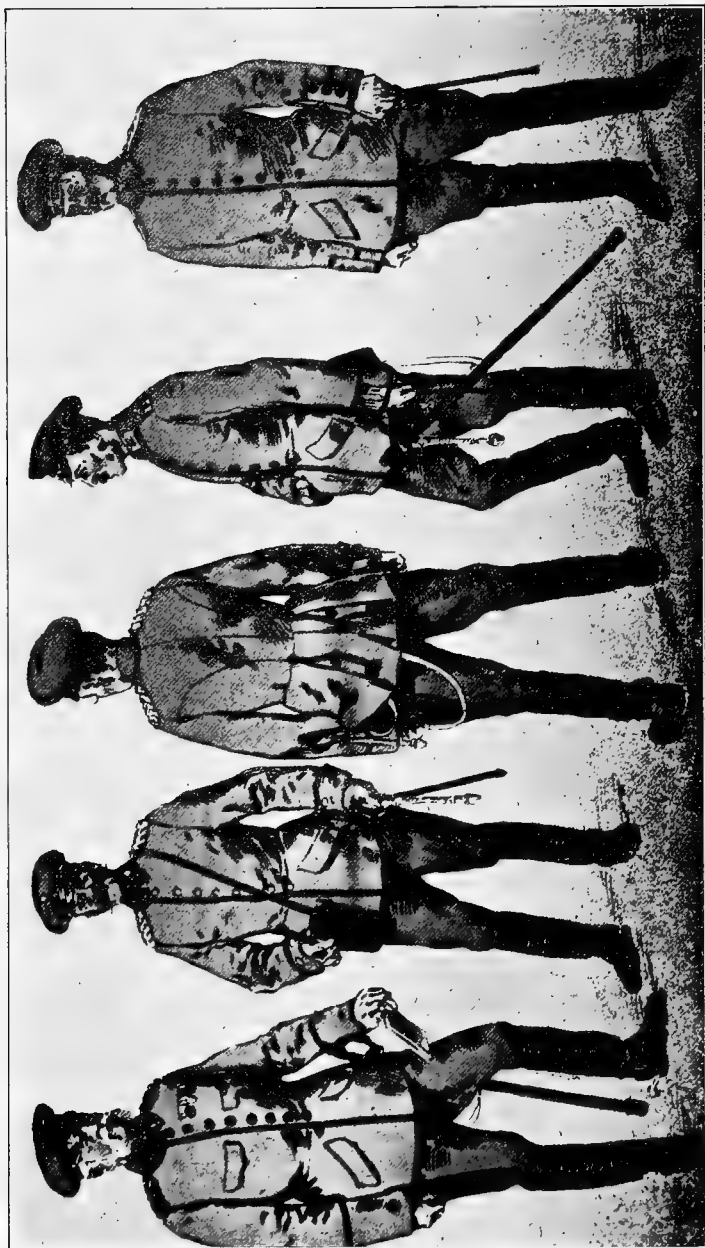
LAND BATTERY FIRING AGAINST BATTLESHIPS



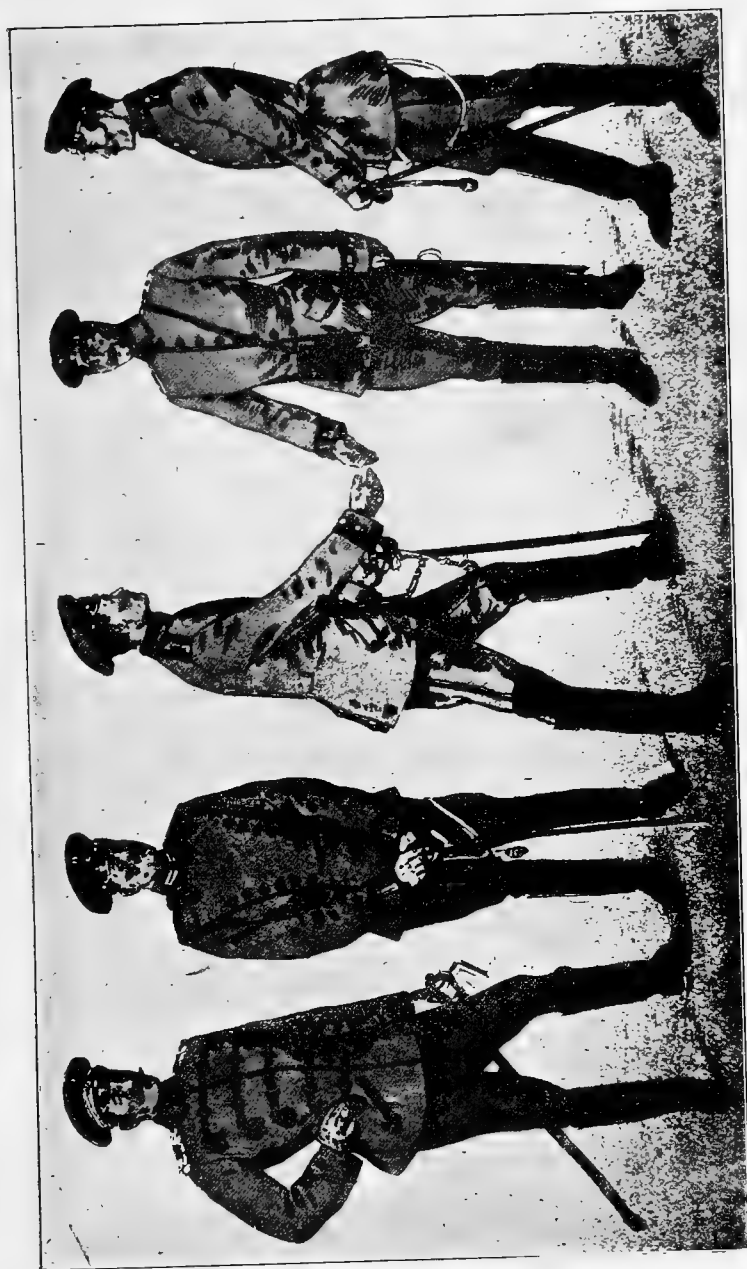
PIONEERS CONSTRUCTING A BRIDGE



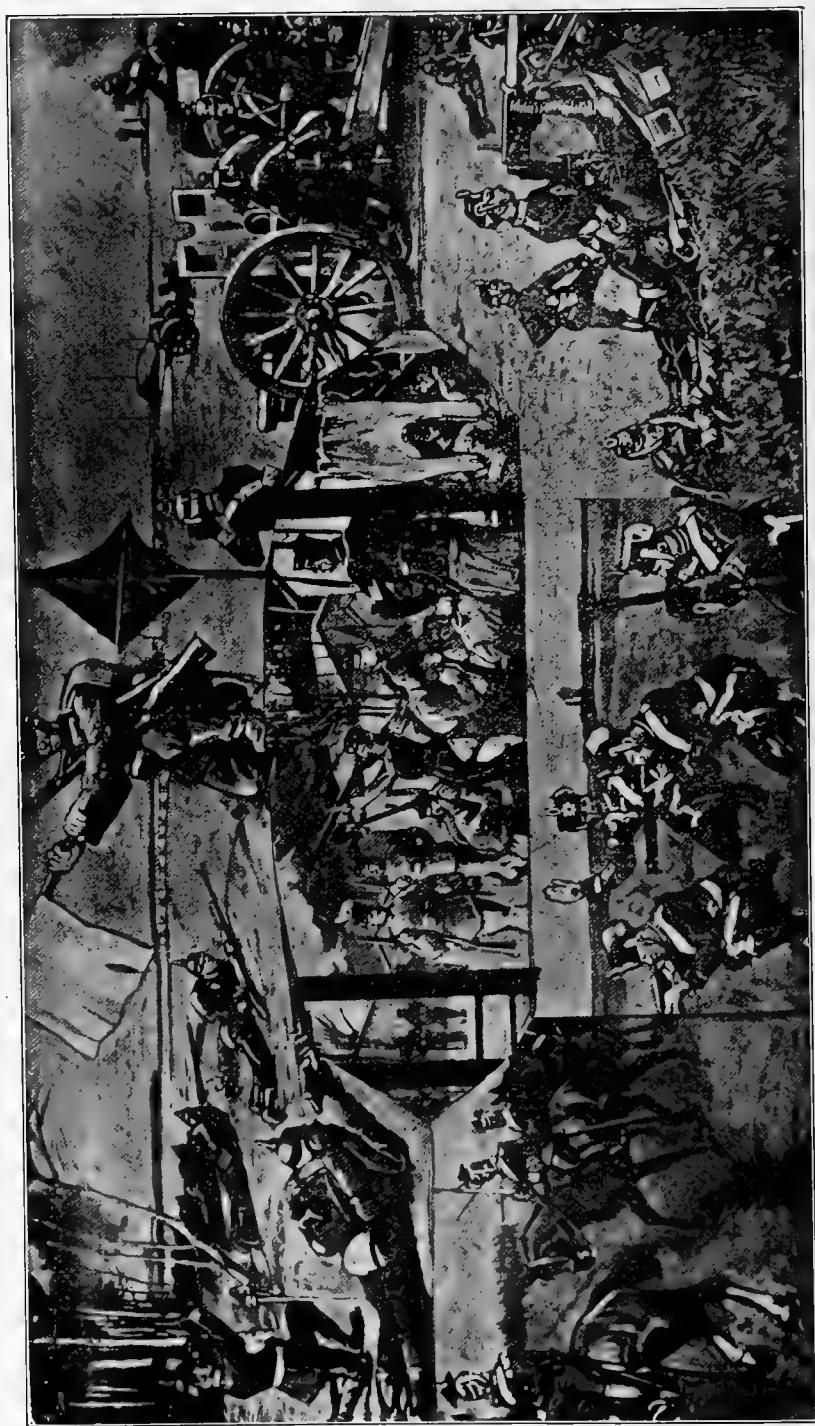
FIELD STAFF



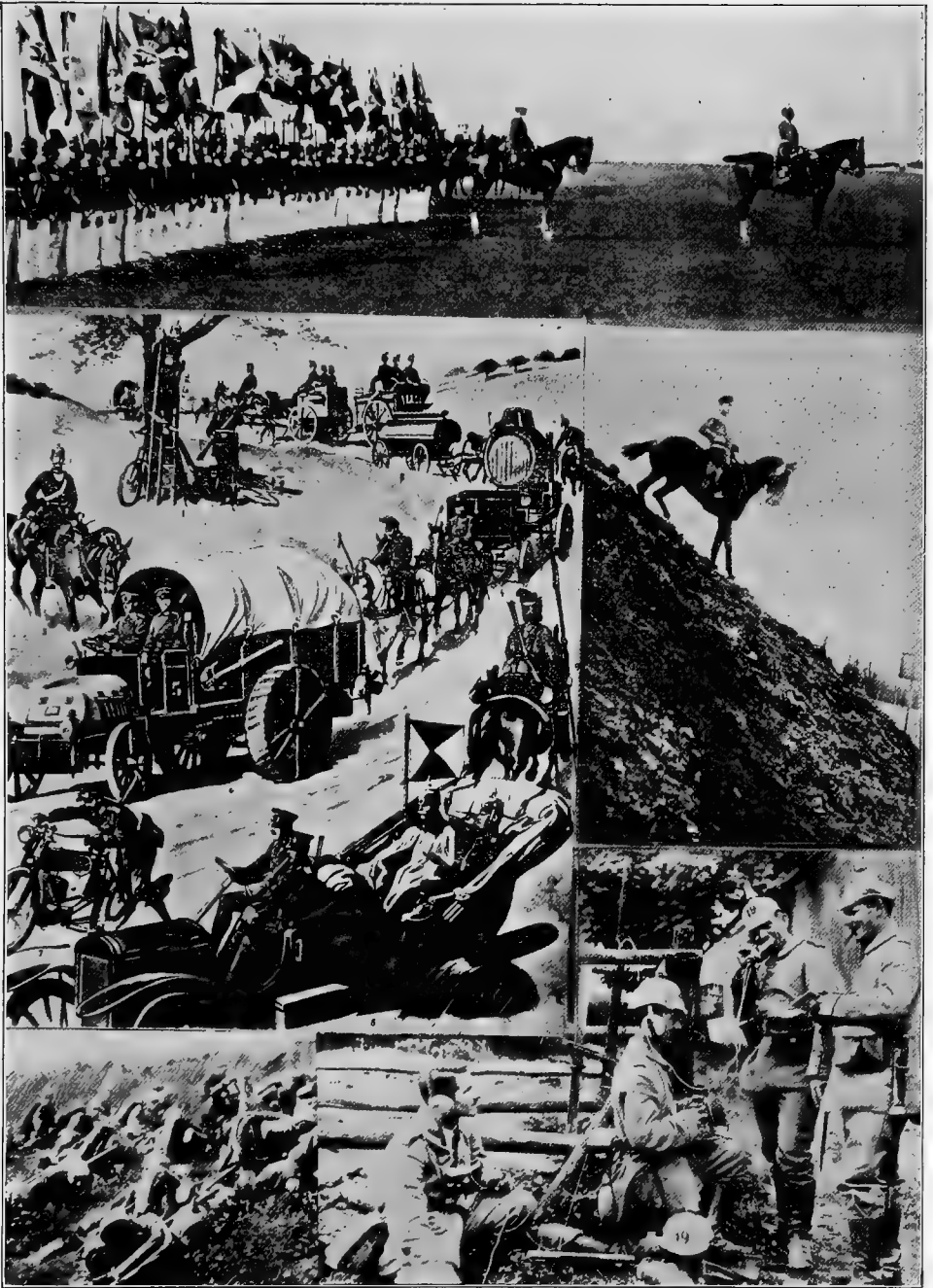
TYPES OF NEW FIELD UNIFORMS FOR THE OFFICERS



TYPES OF NEW FIELD UNIFORMS FOR THE OFFICERS



THE ARMY IN THE FIELD



THE ARMY IN THE FIELD



FIELD BATTERY IN ACTION

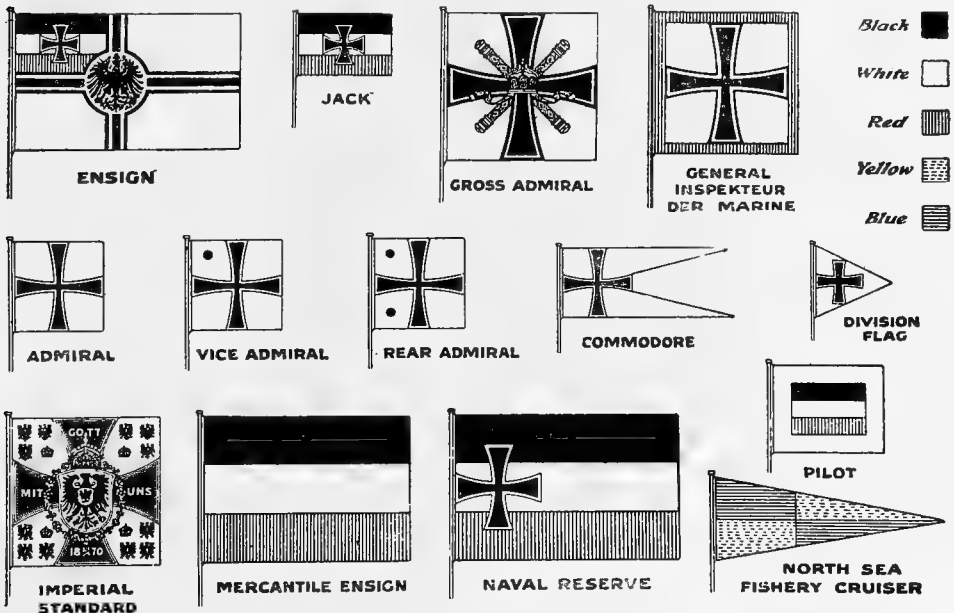


CAVALRY CROSSING A RIVER



## THE NAVY

As early as 1848 the German people urged the construction of a fleet and a few men-of-war were built, but the *Bundestag*, or Federal Council, was not in sympathy with the movement and it was accordingly dropped. Prussia, however, began laying the foundations of a small navy, and, on the annexation of Holstein in 1864, obtained possession of the important port of Kiel, which has since been strongly fortified. In 1869, Wilhelmshaven (which had been purchased from Oldenburg in 1854) was opened as a strong war port. The navy, however, was of slow growth, and in 1868 consisted only of 45 steamers (including 2 ironclads) and 44 sailing vessels. Even after the formation of the North German Confederation, when it took on the common federal interest, the navy did not add to the Empire's prestige. Since October 1, 1867, all ships have sailed under the flag bearing the black, white and red, with the Prussian eagle and iron cross. But towards the end of the 19th century Germany inaugurated the naval policy which in July, 1914, gave them a fleet second only to the British.







NAVY UNIFORMS

SERGEANT

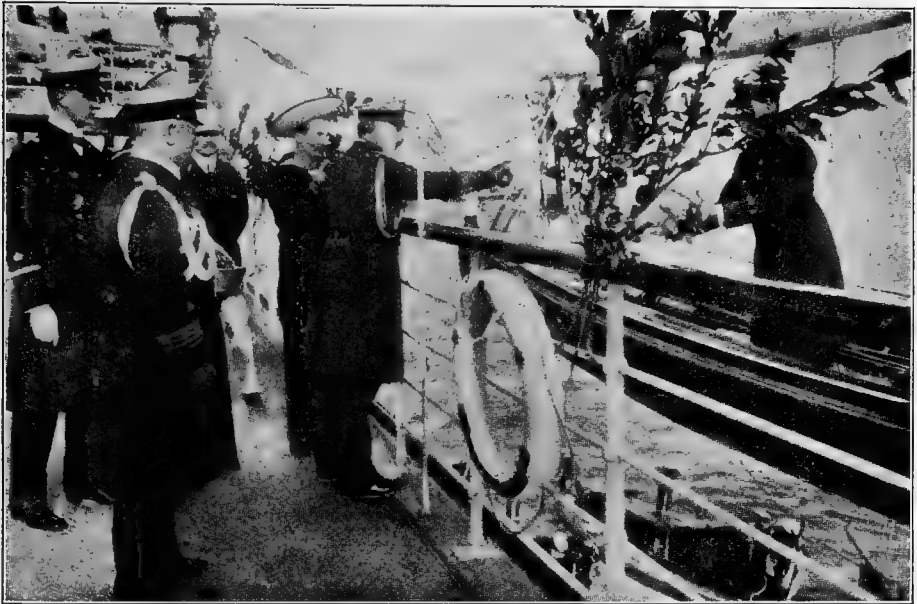
SAILORS

OFFICERS

ADMIRAL

OFFICERS

MARINES



THE EMPEROR HIDING EGGS FOR THE EASTER HUNT FOR THE MARINES

In March, 1889, the naval administration was transferred from the ministry to the imperial admiralty, or *Reichsmarineamt*, and entrusted to the naval Secretary of State. The chief command was then also separated and vested in a naval officer, who controls the general movements of the fleet and deals with questions concerning coast defence and training and efficiency of the personnel. The naval Secretary of State has charge of the Imperial arsenals and dockyards and all matters pertaining to the material, clothing, etc. The Law of June 14, 1900 provided that the fleet should always be maintained at a strength of 37 battleships, 20 armored cruisers, 32 small cruisers, 144 torpedo boats, and 72 submarines; in 1909 this law was amended and provided that by 1917 the strength of the fleet should include 41 battleships, 20 armored cruisers, 38 smaller cruisers, 144 torpedos and 72 submarines, and



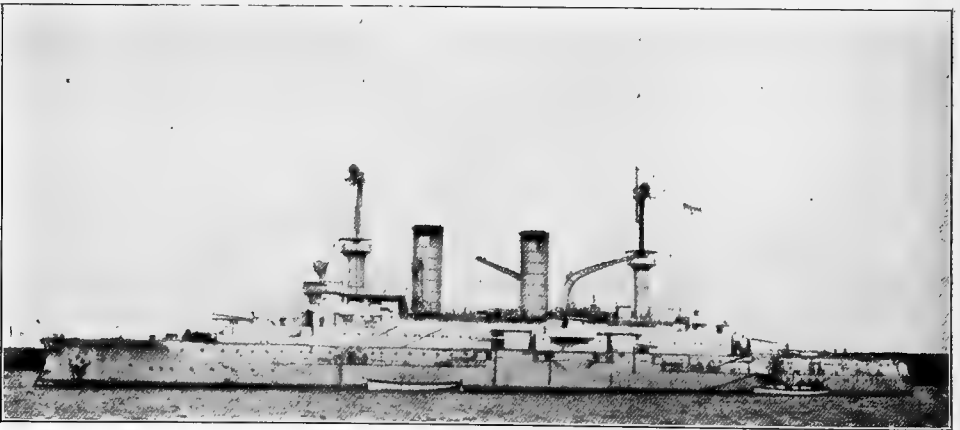
DREADNOUGHT "HELIGOLAND"



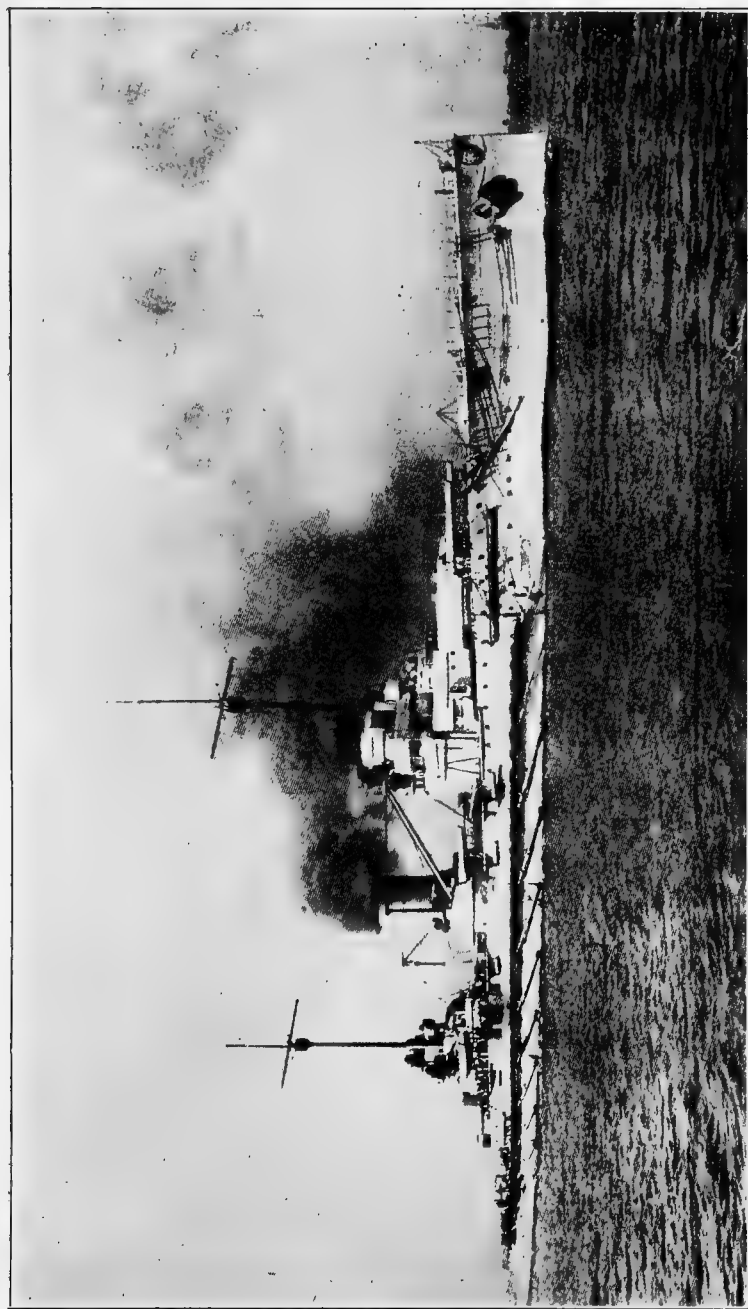
DREADNOUGHT "OLDENBURG"

that no battleship should be older than 20 years and no torpedo boat older than 12.

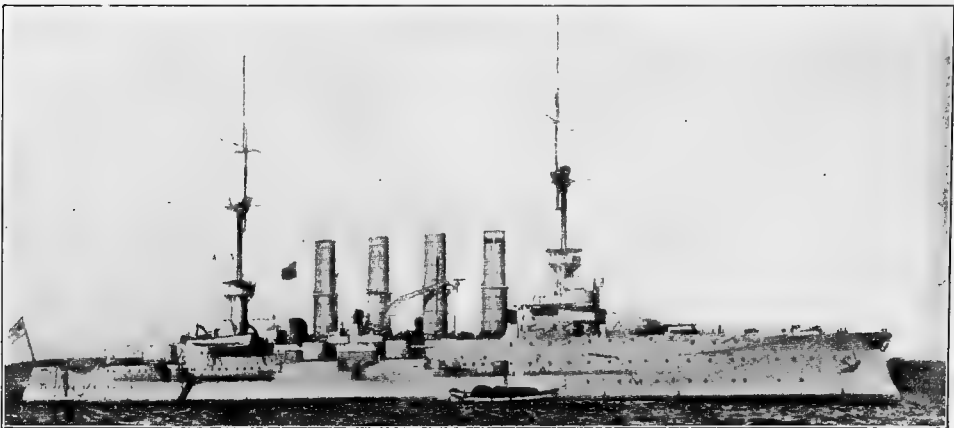
The navy is manned by the obligatory service of the maritime population—sailors, fishermen, ships' carpenters, and others—and of the semi-maritime population, or those who have smaller experience of the sea, as well as by volunteers who prefer naval service to military. Since great inducements are held out for able seamen to volunteer in the navy, the number of these in recent years has been very large. Out of a total seafaring population of 80,000, 48,000 are serving in the merchant navy at home and about 6,000 in foreign merchant navies. The naval personnel counts about 73,000 officers and men, plus a 1st line reserve of about 110,000, and is especially efficient in torpedo service.



BATTLESHIP "SCHWABEN"



DREADNOUGHT CRUISER "MOLTKE"



ARMORED CRUISER "ROON"

Practically the entire fleet is always in commission. The estimated expenditures of the navy in 1909 were: \$104,982,025; and early in 1914, \$111,988,035.

The peace strength of the fleet is:

	Effective at end of		
	1913	1914	1915
Dreadnoughts .....	17	19	21
Pre-Dreadnought Battleships .....	20	20	20
Coast service Battleships .....	28	28	
Battle Cruisers .....	3	5	7
Armored Cruisers .....	9	9	9
Protected Cruisers .....	36	38	38
Cruisers and Gunboats .....	14	13	15
Destroyers .....	140	152	164
Torpedo boats (old) .....	47	47	47
Submarines .....	21	27	
Hydroplanes .....	10	30	

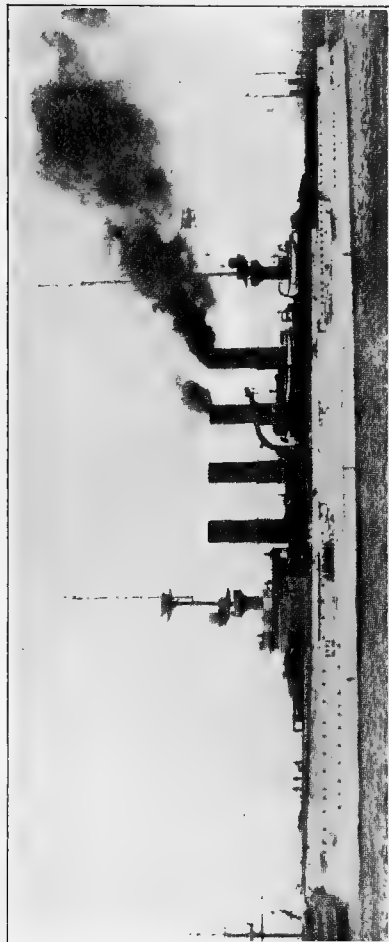
The fleet is divided between the Baltic (Kiel) and the North Seas (Wilhelmshaven), which are strategically linked by the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal across the Schleswig-Holstein Peninsula.



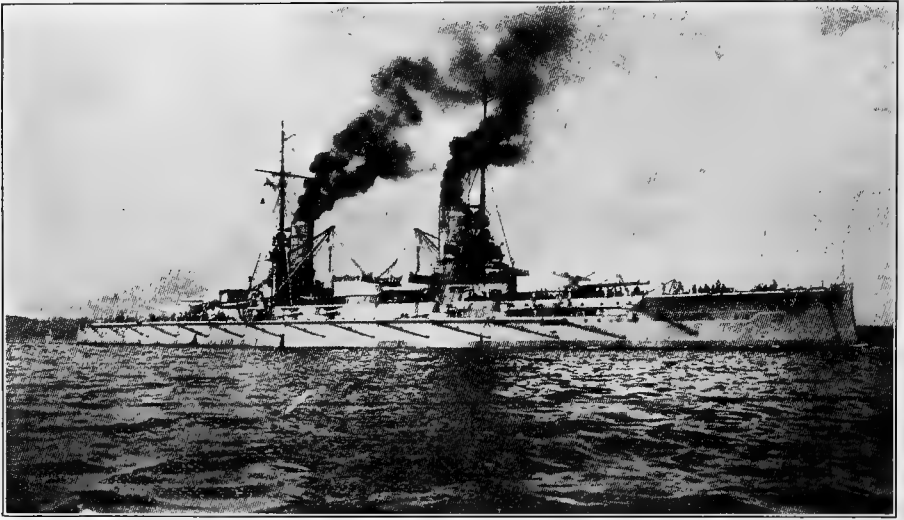
SPECIAL SUBMARINE SHIP "VULCAN"



BATTLE CRUISER  
"SEYDLITZ"



ARMORED CRUISER  
"GUEISENAU"



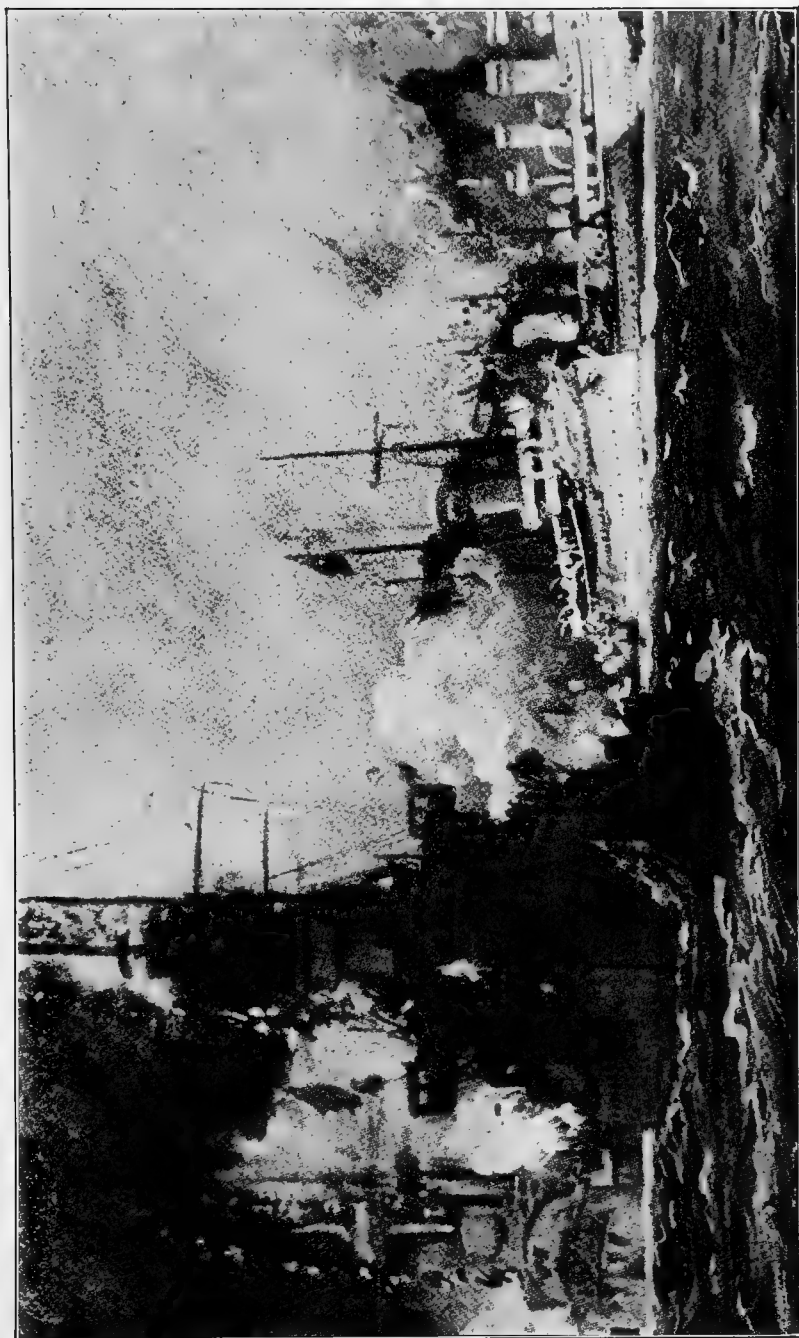
DREADNOUGHT "KAISER"



SMALL CRUISER "DRESDEN"



TORPEDO BOAT "S 87"

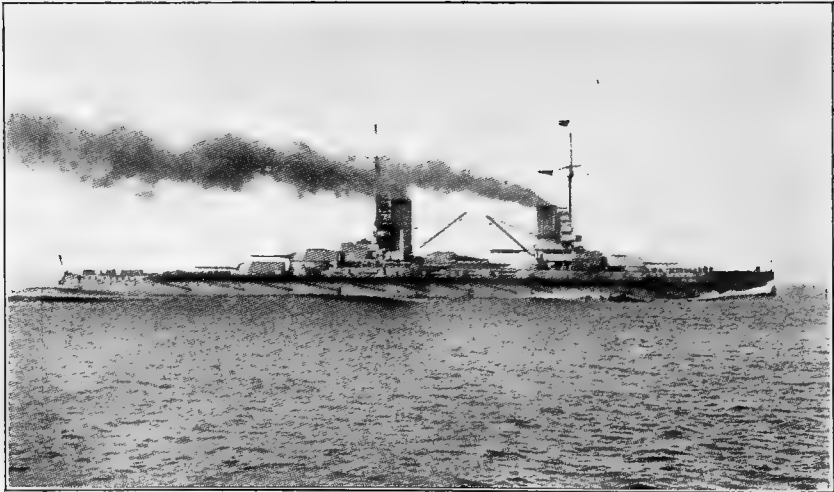


FLEET STEAMING OUT TO SEA





SMALL CRUISER "KARLSRUHE"



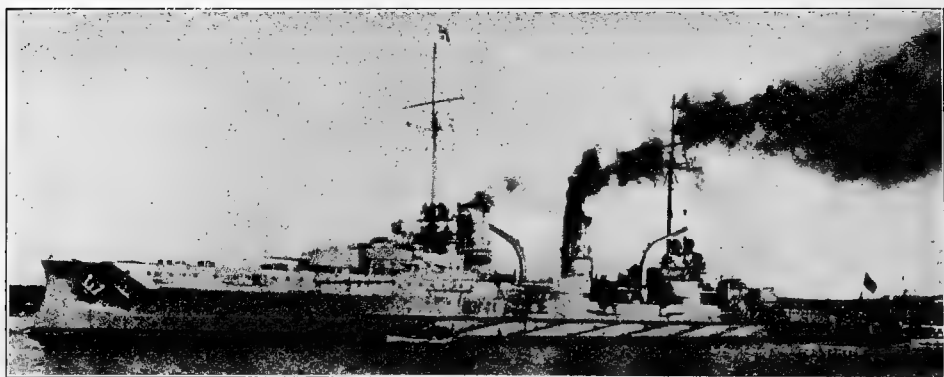
BATTLESHIP "PRINZREGENT LUITPOLD"



BATTLE-CRUISER "GOEBEN."



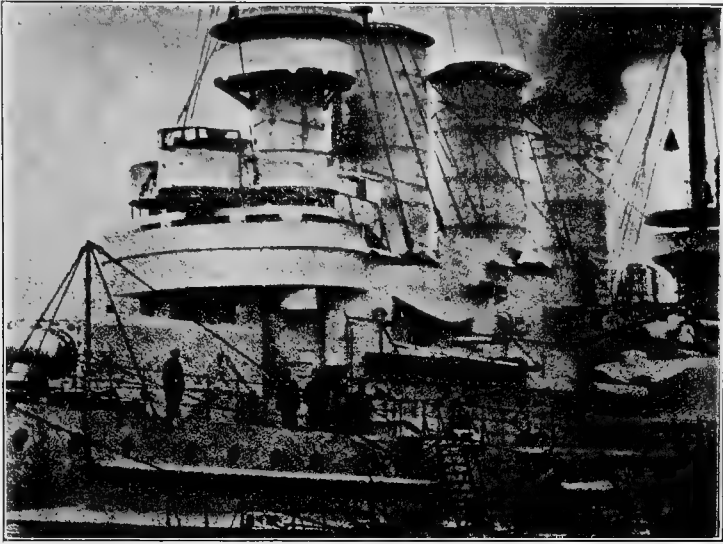
BATTLESHIP "LOTHRINGEN"



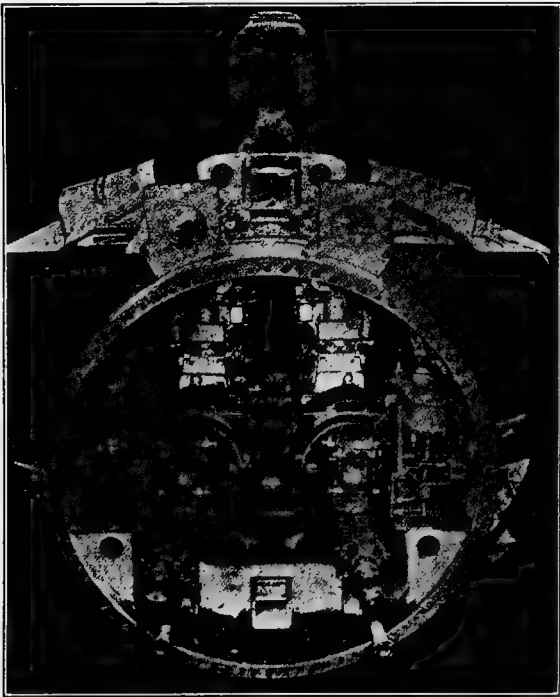
ARMORED CRUISER "BLÜCHER"



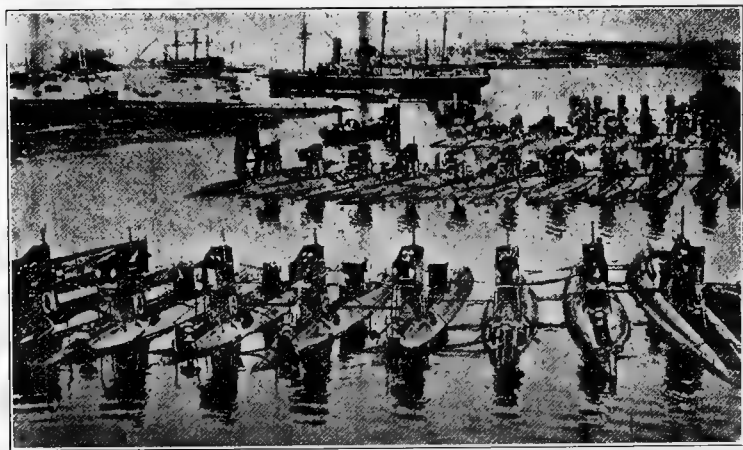
DESTROYER "D 9"



BATTLESHIP "PREUSSEN"



INTERIOR OF SUBMARINE



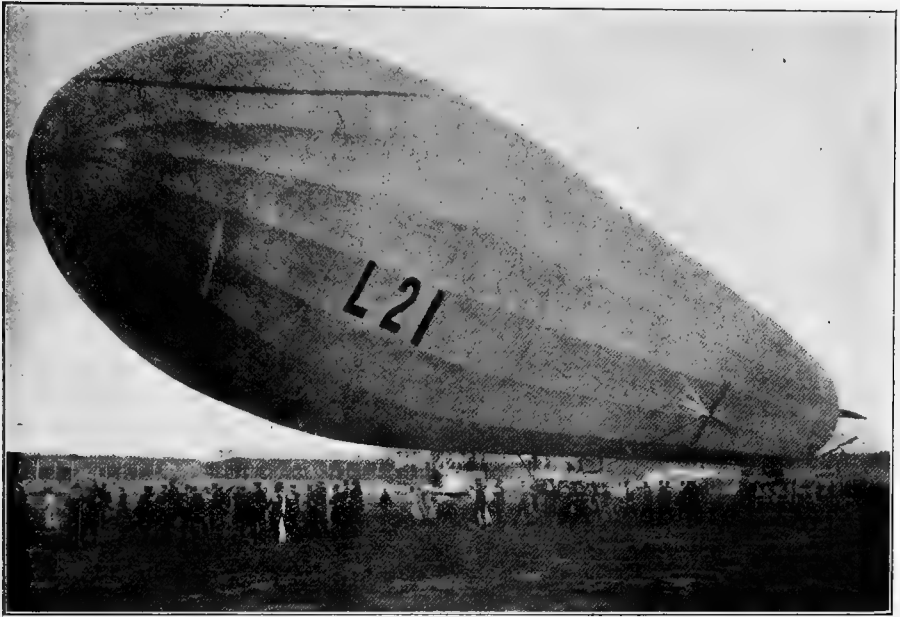
FLEET OF SUBMARINES



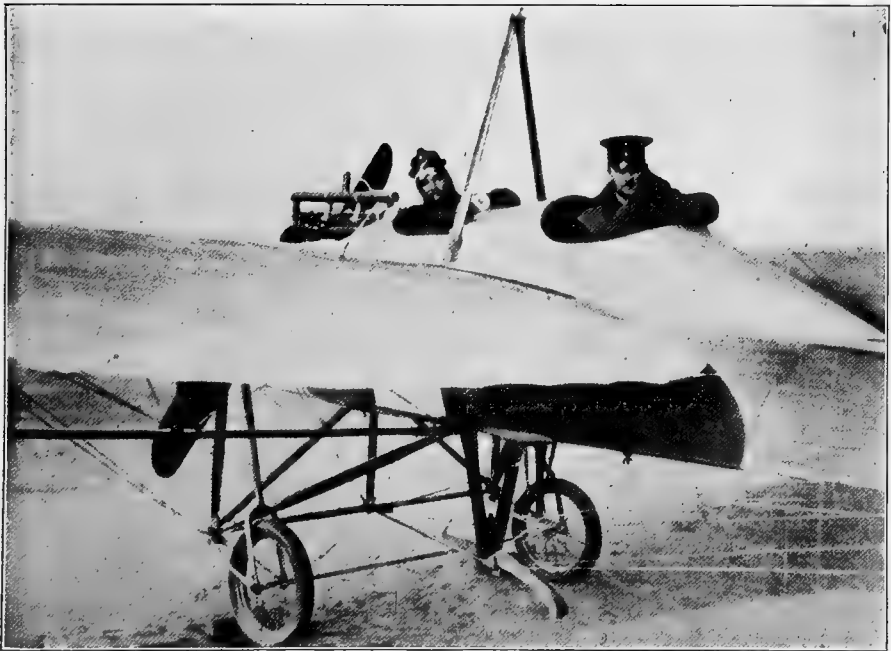
SUBMARINE "U 16"



SUBMARINE " U 12"



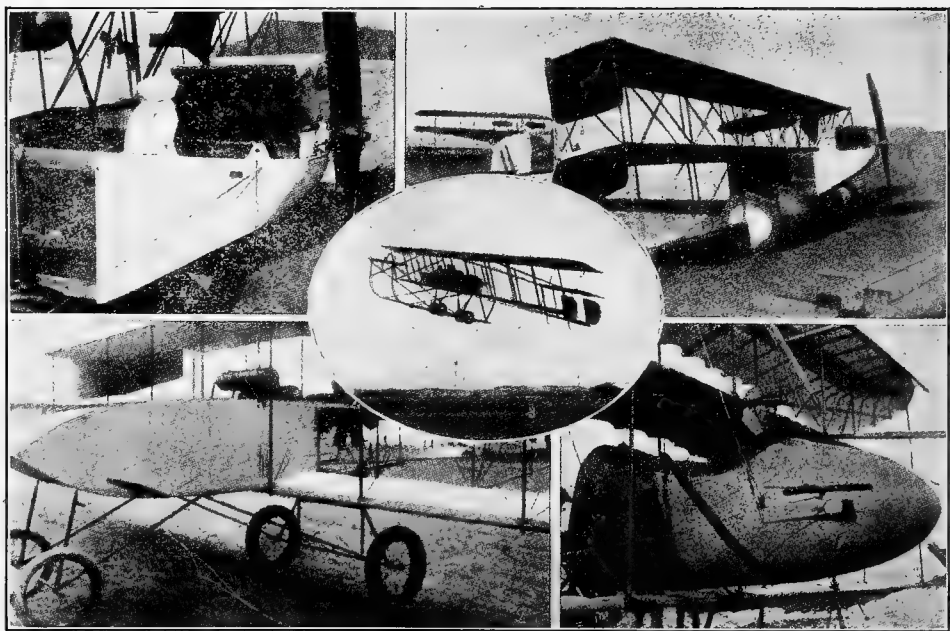
ZEPPELIN



AEROPLANE



AEROPLANE CAMP



TYPES OF AEROPLANES



Russia







NICHOLAS II





THE CZAREVITCH ALEXIS

This Picture Was Taken by His Majesty, the Czar



THE CZARINA AND HER DAUGHTERS



THE EMPRESS ALEXANDRA FEODOROVNA  
THE GRAND DUCHESS OLGA  
THE GRAND DUCHESS TATIANA  
IN UNIFORM AS COLONELS



FATHER AND SON

## NICHOLAS II.

The Emperor Nicholas II, was born at Petrograd on May 18, 1868, of the Emperor Alexander III and the Empress Marie Feodorovna (sister of Queen Alexandra of England). He was carefully educated as heir to the throne and began his military career at thirteen, when he was appointed *ataman* of the Cossacks. Special attention was paid to the study of mathematics, the physical sciences and political science. He continued his military career, serving in various regiments, among them the famous Preobrajenski. He travelled considerably and in 1890 set out with his cousin, Prince George of Greece, for a tour of China, Japan and India. Previous to this he had been appointed President of the Commission to prepare designs for the Trans-Siberian Railway, and while in Vladivostok in 1891 turned the first sod for this road. He returned to Europe by the overland route.

He ascended the throne on November 1, 1894 and on the 26th of the same month married the Princess Alix of Hesse-Darmstadt. Their coronation took place at Moscow in May, 1896 with gorgeous ceremonial; and in August of the same year, he paid a series of visits to the Emperors of Austria and Germany, the King of Denmark, the Queen of England and the President of France. In 1898 he made his famous peace proposal which led to the first Peace Conference at the Hague (1899) and the founding of the first Court of Arbitration. The Czar resembles somewhat his cousin, King George of England, but his features incline more to the Slavic than Danish type. He is described as having

His tastes are simple and he spends as much time as possible with his family at Tsarkoe-Selo, his palace about 15 miles from Petrograd.

The imperial couple have five children. The grand Duchess Olga (b. November 15, 1895) is very clever and is the intellectual member of the family. The next daughter, Grand Duchess Tatiana (b. June 10, 1897), is of a more lively disposition and prefers long rides with her father to books. The Grand Duchesses Marie (b. June 26, 1899) and Anastasia (b. June 18, 1901) are still in the school-room and rarely appear in public. The youngest child, the Czarevich Alexis (b. August 12, 1904), is the heir apparent. He met with a serious accident a few years ago, but is rapidly recovering his former health and vigor.

THE CZAR KISSING THE  
SENTINEL ON THE MORNING OF  
EASTER DAY

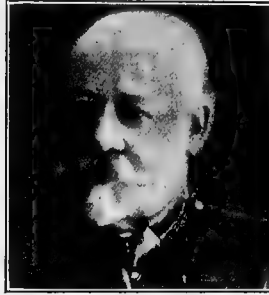


THE DOWAGER EMPRESS  
MARIE FEODOROVNA

The Empress was the Princess Dagmar of Denmark  
and is the Sister of Queen Alexandra of England



THE GRAND DUKE  
NIKOLAS, COMMANDER-  
IN-CHIEF OF THE ARMY



GENERAL SUKHOM-  
LINOFF, MINISTER  
OF WAR



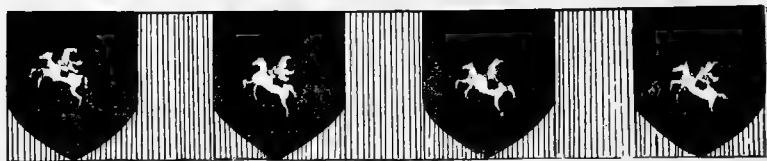
ADMIRAL GREGOWITCH,  
COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF  
OF THE NAVY

GENERAL NICHOLAS JANUCK-  
KEWITCH, CHIEF OF THE  
GENERAL STAFF



M. SAZONOFF  
MINISTER OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS





## THE HOUSE OF ROMANOV



The Romanovs trace their descent from Andrei Kolya, who is said to have come to Moscow from Prussia about 1314. He entered the service of the Grand Duke Semen and acquired lands. His great-grandson, Sakhariya Ivanovich was a boyar of Vasili V, Grand Duke of Moscow (1425-62). The family takes its name from his grandson, Roman, whose daughter Anastasia Romanovna, married Czar Ivan IV. The Romanovs were also connected with the ancient family of Rurik, through the marriage of Anastasia's brother with the Princess Eudoxia Alexandrovna, who was descended from the Grand Dukes of Suzdal-Vladimir. The Romanovs passed through a period of decline during the troubles which followed the death of Ivan IV the Terrible, but later recovered their fortunes. In 1610, Feodor was imprisoned by the King of Poland, but on account of his virtues and piety was held in high repute. He was released and made Patriarch of Moscow, and his son, Michael was elected Czar in 1613. His descendants ruled until 1730 when the male line became extinct and the succession was continued through the female line. Peter the Great's eldest daughter, Anna, had married Charles Frederick of Holstein-Gottorp. With the accession of her son, Peter III (1762), begins the present reigning dynasty of Holstein-Gottorp or Oldenburg-Romanov.

The House of Oldenburg-Holstein, which has furnished so many sovereigns to Europe and now counts among its members the Kings of Denmark, Greece and Norway, has been very closely connected with the Russian royal house. All the Czars since Peter III have married German princesses and hence German and Danish influences have been very pronounced in Russia during the 19th century. Alexander III married Princess Dagmar of Denmark, and their son, Nicholas II, is thus connected with the royal family of Denmark, and through his aunt, Queen Alexandra of England, with the English royal family.



### RULERS OF THE HOUSE OF ROMANOV

Michael Feodorowitch, Patriarch Philaret of Moscow, Father  
of Michael, Alexis Michailowitch

The Empress Elizabeth, Peter the Great, Catherine II the Great  
Alexander I, Nicholas I, Alexander II



## HISTORY

In the ninth century, a Slavonic race occupied the basin of the Dneiper. It is said that the Slavs invited three brothers, Rurik, Sineus and Truvor, to come from the North and rule over them. It is certain, however, that the Scandanavians invaded in force and settled around Novgorod about 862; Nestor calls these people Varangians and they seem to have gradually amalgamated with the Slavs. The brothers brought with them Askold and Dir, two adventurers like themselves. They soon quarreled with Rurik and set out for Constantinople to find their fortune. On the way they conquered Kiev, a flourishing city in the hands of the Khazars, and from here in 851 marched on Constantinople, and plundered the city. At the death of his brothers, Rurik annexed their dominions and took the title of Grand Prince (*Veliki kniaz*). He died in 879 leaving the regency of his lands and the guardianship of his son Igor to Oleg. Oleg captured Smolensk and Kiev, and advanced upon Constantinople. Igor continued the wars against the Greeks, who finally were glad to purchase peace. His son, Sviatoslav, who was the first prince to bear a Slavonic name, won fame in his campaigns against the Petchenegs, a Mongol tribe inhabiting the basin of the Don. At his death, according to the apanage system, his territory was divided among his three sons, of whom the most famous was Vladimir. He had obtained Novgorod, as his share, but, after killing his brothers, became sole ruler. He also added Galicia, subdued some of the Lithuanian and Livonian tribes, took Chersonesus in the Crimea, and sought the hand of the Princess Anne (daughter of the Byzantine Emperor) in marriage. This request was granted on condition that he embrace Christianity. Accordingly he was baptized at Constantinople in 988. On his return to Kiev he converted the whole population. At his death the land was divided among his sons, of whom Yaroslav is the most famous as he ordered the first codification of the Russian law, the *Russkaia Pravda*.

According to the apanage system, which seems to have prevailed from very early times, the Russian land was a huge family estate belonging to the Rurik line, each member of which considered himself entitled to a share of it. It was therefore divided into a number of independent principalities held loosely together by a sort of patriarchal authority, vested in the senior member of the family, who ruled in Kiev, but this position was not hereditary from father to son. It was always given to the senior member of the dynasty, and the same principle was applied to all the other principalities. Hence, with the constant family quarrels and the difficulty of deciding the question of seniority, the land was continually being divided. From 1054 to 1224, there were 64 principalities, 293 princes claimed authority and 83 civil wars were waged. Kiev was pillaged again and again and finally left a prey to barbarian tribes from the steppe, and the Russians were obliged to fall back to the regions of the Upper Volga, where new principalities were formed—Vladimir, Tver, Moscow. The princes lost all feeling for



IVAN THE TERRIBLE





family relationships and were constant rivals. About this time Novogorod set up a form of municipal republic. The rivalry between all these left the land an easy prey to the Mongols, who settled themselves around the lower Volga and for many years received tribute from the Russians. Under Dimitri Donskoi of Moscow, the Russians united and defeated the Tatars in the battle of Kulikovo (1380), in which the Tatars are said to have lost 100,000 men. This victory gave immense prestige to the princes of Moscow, and, under Ivan III the Great, Basil and Ivan IV (1462-1584), Moscow absorbed all the other principalities.

During the reign of Ivan III, who married the niece of the Emperor Constantine Palaeologus of Constantinople, Byzantine civilization was introduced. Ivan IV was crowned Czar of all Russia in 1547, annexed Kazan and Astrakan, opened trade relations with England, by way of the White Sea and North Cape, and waged constant war with Lithuania and Poland in the hope of gaining an outlet to the Baltic. His successors were not able to imitate his autocratic power, and the country was in great danger of falling to the Poles, when the people rose up, expelled the invaders, and in a grand national assembly elected as Czar Michael Romanov, who was connected by marriage with the preceding dynasty. The country accepted the new family and order was re-established. The Romanovs did not distinguish themselves greatly until Peter the Great (1689-1725). He ruled with a vigorous hand, defeated Sweden at the battle of Poltava (1709), acquired Ingria, Karelia, Livonia, Esthonia and part of Finland by the Treaty of Nystad (1721), reformed the army, laid the foundation of the navy, introduced Western European customs, built his capital at Petrograd, and had himself proclaimed Emperor of all Russia (1711). The male line became extinct in 1730, and the accession passed into the hands of members of the female line who had intermarried with German princes, and German influences predominated under such men as Biren, Münnich and Ostermann. Under the German Catherine II (1762-96), consort of Czar Peter III, Russia was recognized as one of the Great Powers. Catherine introduced Western art and literature, accomplished administrative reforms, allied herself with Prussia, England and Denmark, and secured a considerable share of Poland.





Under Alexander I (1801-25), liberal reforms were attempted: the Council of Empire was erected, the idea of a constitution was discussed, schemes of education proposed, and emancipation of the serfs begun in the Baltic provinces. He resisted Napoleon at first, but concluded with him the Treaty of Tilsit, by which he hoped to divide with Napoleon the control of Europe. His pretensions to power, however, caused Napoleon to undertake the campaign of Moscow, which brought Napoleon to Waterloo and Alexander to a predominant position in European politics. Nicholas I (1825-55) reacted from the liberal policy of Alexander, reformed the army and navy, constructed railways and advanced industry and commerce. Alexander II (1855-81), emancipated the serfs, reorganized the judicial administration and inaugurated local self-government, relaxed the strict censorship of the Press under which a new imaginative and critical literature arose, producing some of the greatest writers in all literature (Tolstoy, Dostoievsky, Turgeniev). These reforms, however, had to work slowly, and the Government announced that nothing more was to be done until the country had time to adjust itself. This produced great dissatisfaction among the younger generation, filled with vague ideas of an indeterminate millenium, and the reaction led to the rise of Nihilism. Though Alexander's foreign policy was not successful in Europe, in Asia it won for him Siberia. Upon the assassination of Alexander II, Alexander III succeeded and entered upon a frankly reactionary policy, and his successor, Nicholas II (1894), has endeavored to combine the policies of his father and grandfather. He strengthened relations with France, joining the Triple Entente, and endeavored to extend Russian influence in the Far East, but received a severe check in the Russo-Japanese War of 1905. The old liberal movements and conspiracies now began to revive, and the Government decided to issue the Manifesto of October 30, 1905, promising to convoke a legislative assembly. The first Duma met on May 10, 1906.

Russia comprises one-seventh of the land surface of the world and has an area in Europe of 1,996,743 sq. mi. The total area, including the Asiatic possessions, is 8,647,657 sq. mi. The total population is 171,059,900, which is increasing at the rate of 2,500,000 per annum. Poland contains 12,776,300, Finland, 3,140,000, Caucasus, 12,288,100, Siberia, 9,577,900, and Central Asian possessions, 10,727,000. The Slavs, including the Poles, constitute about 63 per cent of the population, Turco-Tartars about 10 per cent, Finns about 2 per cent, and Jews about 3

per cent; the rest of the population being made up of Lithuanians, Germans, Armenians and a variety of Asiatic peoples.

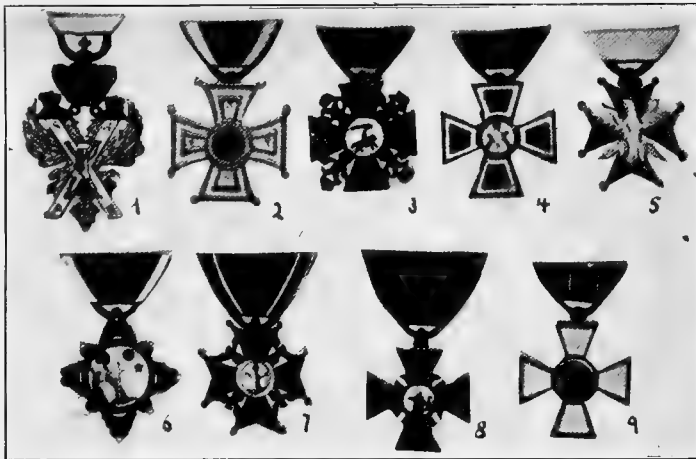
Since 1905, Russia has been a constitutional monarchy, ruled equally by the Emperor, the Duma and the Council of Empire. According to the Law of June 16, 1907, the Duma consists of members elected for 5 years by the electoral bodies of the governments and the great cities (Petrograd, Moscow, Warsaw, Kiev, Lodz, Odessa and Riga). The council of Empire consists of an equal number of elected members and members appointed by the Emperor. They serve 9 years; one-third elected every 3 years. No measure can become a law without the consent of these two houses. The power of the Emperor is only limited by the fundamental laws of the country, and the crown descends in order of primogeniture, with preference to the male heir. The Emperor is also assisted by a council of Ministers (the heads of the Imperial Court, Foreign Affairs, War and Marine, Finance, Commerce and Industry, Interior, Agriculture, Ways and Communications, Justice, Public Instruction), and dependent upon this are two other councils—the Holy Synod and the Senate.

The vast majority of the population are engaged in agriculture. The country is enormously rich in minerals of all kinds, but manufacturing and mining are only beginning to be developed. The exports 1913-14 amounted to about \$820,000,000; the imports to \$790,295,000.

The Russian dependencies are:

Bokhara, in Central Asia (1868; 83,000 sq. mi.; pop. 1,250,000).

Khiva (1872; 22,320 sq. mi.; pop. 800,000).



- |                              |                             |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. ORDER OF ST. ANDREW       | 5. ORDER OF THE WHITE EAGLE |
| 2. MILITARY ORDER OF MERIT   | 6. ORDER OF ST. CATHERINE   |
| 3. ORDER OF ST. ALEX. NEWSKI | 7. ORDER OF ST. STANISLAS   |
| 4. ORDER OF ST. VLADIMIR     | 8. ORDER OF ST. ANNA        |
| 9. ORDER OF ST. GEORGE       |                             |





A COSSACK OF THE DON, ONE HUNDRED YEARS AGO

### THE ARMY

The early Russian armies were composed of soldiers recruited at first from the people, and called *drowjini*. By the 16th century they were recruited only from the court and the nobles, and were enrolled at the command of the Czar. At each summons, the nobles, mounted on horseback and followed by their retainers and slaves, set forth, an ill-disciplined and irregular force. Ivan IV the Terrible was the first to organize infantry. He recruited it from the Cossacks as a permanent force and it formed his army. Thus originated the famous *Strelitz*. It was a fierce, undisciplined band, owning no law nor regular establishment and was as often to be found in support of the throne as of the nobles. Michael Romanov, fearing to disband so dangerous a force, called in Swedish, Dutch and Scotch mercenaries, but these were not in favor with the boyars and soon broke their contract and departed. The Czar Alexis made great efforts to establish discipline, appointing foreign officers, and succeeded in holding in check the *Strelitz*, which then numbered 40,000. The Russians at this time had also artillery corps, but they were clumsy, ill-managed, and without experience.



COSSACKS CHARGING





COSSACKS OF THE LIFE GUARD

Peter the Great created the modern army, re-organizing the old forces on European plans. He abolished the *Strelitz* (1698), established universal conscription (including serf and slave), allowed promotion from the ranks, created the Imperial Guard and instituted a corps d'élite (recruited from the noble families of Moscow). This army did good service for Peter in his wars with Charles XII of Sweden and two regiments of it survive to-day—the Preobrazhenski and the Semenovski. During the 18th and 19th centuries, the army was remodelled, first on Prussian and then on French lines. Under Alexander II (1855-81), the general morale of the troops was greatly improved and they received better treatment, corporal punishment was abolished in the guard, and applied sparingly in the line. In 1866, the Cossack army of the Azov was abolished and in 1868 the strength of the active army was fixed at 778,000 infantry, 54,000 cavalry, 74,000 artillery and 17,000 miscellaneous. In 1870 conscription extended to the nobility (the Cossacks retained their separate organization). Under Alexander III (1881-94), the time required for mobilization was reduced, the cavalry arm was strengthened, the artillery train service reserves were increased and fortresses built along the frontiers. The enormous development of Russian military power since 1892 has been the marvel of military history.

In the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-05, Russia showed what she could do in the way of moving troops quickly over long distances, and the operations generally proved that the fighting power of the Russian maintained the traditions of Zorndorf, Borodino and Sevastopol. The proverbial stubbornness of the rank and file is the distinctive quality of the Russian soldiers and adds a formidable element to the armies of the Czar. Equally remarkable



COSSACKS OF THE VOLGA

is the new power of distribution. Formerly it was usual to count upon one campaign at least elapsing before Russia could effectively join in European wars, and the greater part of her losses in the Crimean War was due to the enormous distances which had to be traversed on foot, but with the increase of railways and the general development of the country these factors have been greatly reduced.

Profiting by the lessons of the Japanese War, Russia has thoroughly re-organized her army, the Duma in 1910 voting liberal sums for this purpose. Three new army corps were formed (Army of European Russia, Army of the Caucasus, and the Asiatic Army). These are practically distinct and the term of service varies slightly for each. The army was also redistributed, a central group being established in the Moscow-Kazan region. The army is divided among 27 corps in Europe, 3 in the Caucasus, 2 in Turkestan, and 5 in Siberia and the Far East.

Military service is universal and compulsory, from the age of 20 to 42. About 1,000,000 men (exclusive of Cossacks), annually attain the age for joining the army, and exemptions are numerous, as only a little more than one-third are required for service. Speaking generally service is for 3 years in the active army (4 in the cavalry and horse artillery); the soldier then passes



COSSACKS DRILLING



into the reserve (*Zapas*) for 15 or 14 years, undergoing 2 periods of training of 6 weeks each, and then into the territorial or *Opolchénie* for 5 years. The *Opolchénie* is divided into two classes: the first includes, besides the men who have served in the active and reserve, the young men surplus to the annual contingent, and all are liable in time of war; the second is the *levy en masse* and contains all those exempt from actual service, and also the older class of the surplus men who have all had a certain amount of training.

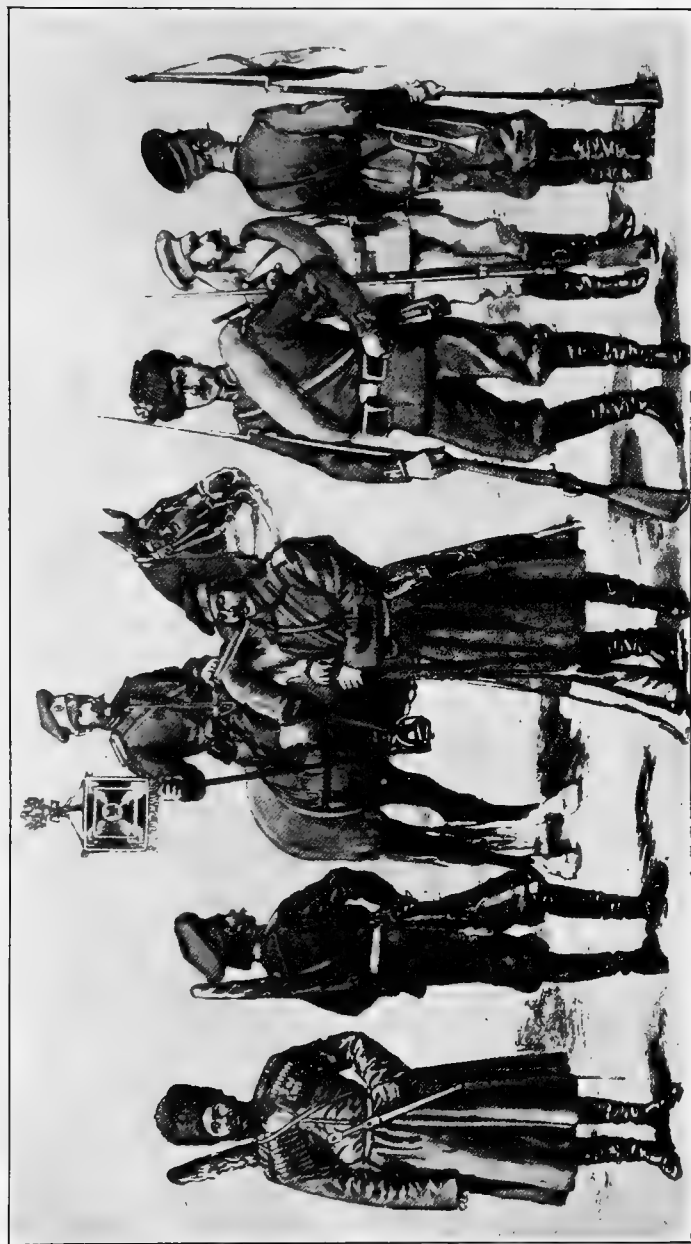
In the Asiatic Army, the men are Russians, recruited from military colonists, with the exception of a few Turkomar irregular horse (*Jigits*). The Cossacks hold their lands by military tenure and are liable to service for life. They are almost entirely mounted. Every Cossack becomes liable to serve as soon as he has completed his 18th year, and finds his own horse and equipment, as in the Indian Sillader cavalry. They are trained for 2 years at home and then enter the first category regiment of their district, in which they remain 4 years. They then pass for 4 years to the second category, remaining at home. The next 4 years are passed in the third category, when they retain their equipment but no horses, and they train for three weeks each year. Finally there is a period of 5 years in the reserve. Besides this every Cossack of any age can be called out in time of war. These rules apply to Don Cossacks; for the others the terms are slightly different. The peace effective of the Cossacks is stated to be 66,000, with 52,400 horses, but it is probable that not more than 58,000 are permanently with the colors. The war strength is given as about 150,000.

The present peace strength of the Russian army is as follows:—

	Europe and the Caucasus	Asiatic Russia
Infantry .....	627,000	83,000
Cavalry .....	116,000	14,000
Artillery .....	138,000	15,000
Engineers .....	34,000	8,000
Army Services .....	34,000	5,000
Total .....	949,000	125,000

Including Cossacks and Frontier Guards, the total peace strength is 1,400,000 (80,000 in Turkestan and Semirietshenk and 28,000 in Siberia).

The war strength of the active army consists of about 56,500 officers and 2,855,000 men. To these figures must be added the available reserve (including the *Opolchénie*, estimated at 1,064,000; Frontier battalions, 41,000; Cossacks, 150,000, which brings the war strength to 5,400,000 men.



COSSACK  
UNDER OFFICER

CAVALRY AND  
INFANTRY

SOLDIERS FROM  
TURKESTAN

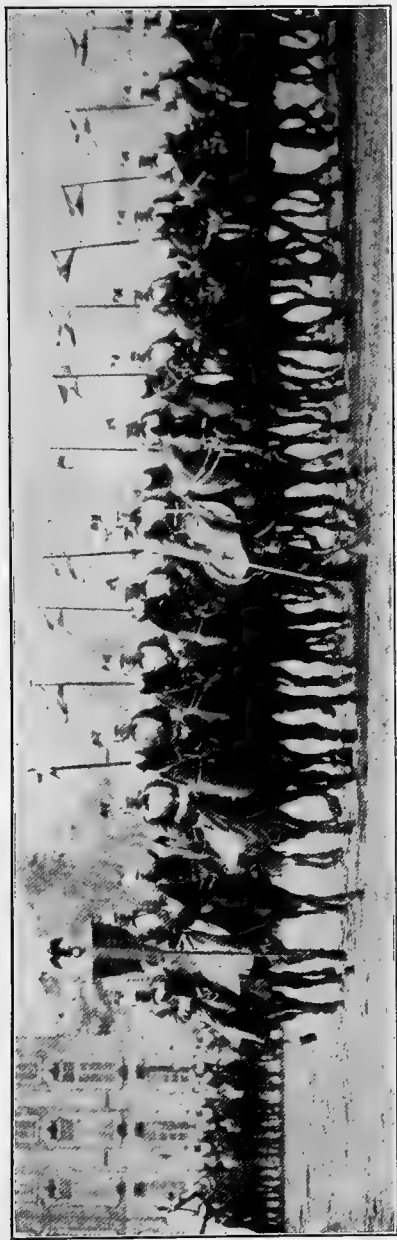




BLESSING THE REGIMENTAL COLORS



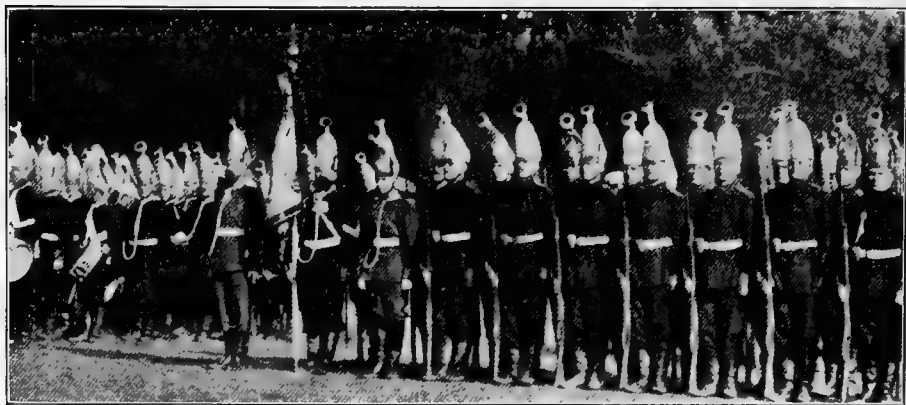
CAVALRY USING THEIR HORSES AS A SHIELD



GUARD OF IMPERIAL CUIRASSIERS



IMPERIAL GUARD OF COSSACKS



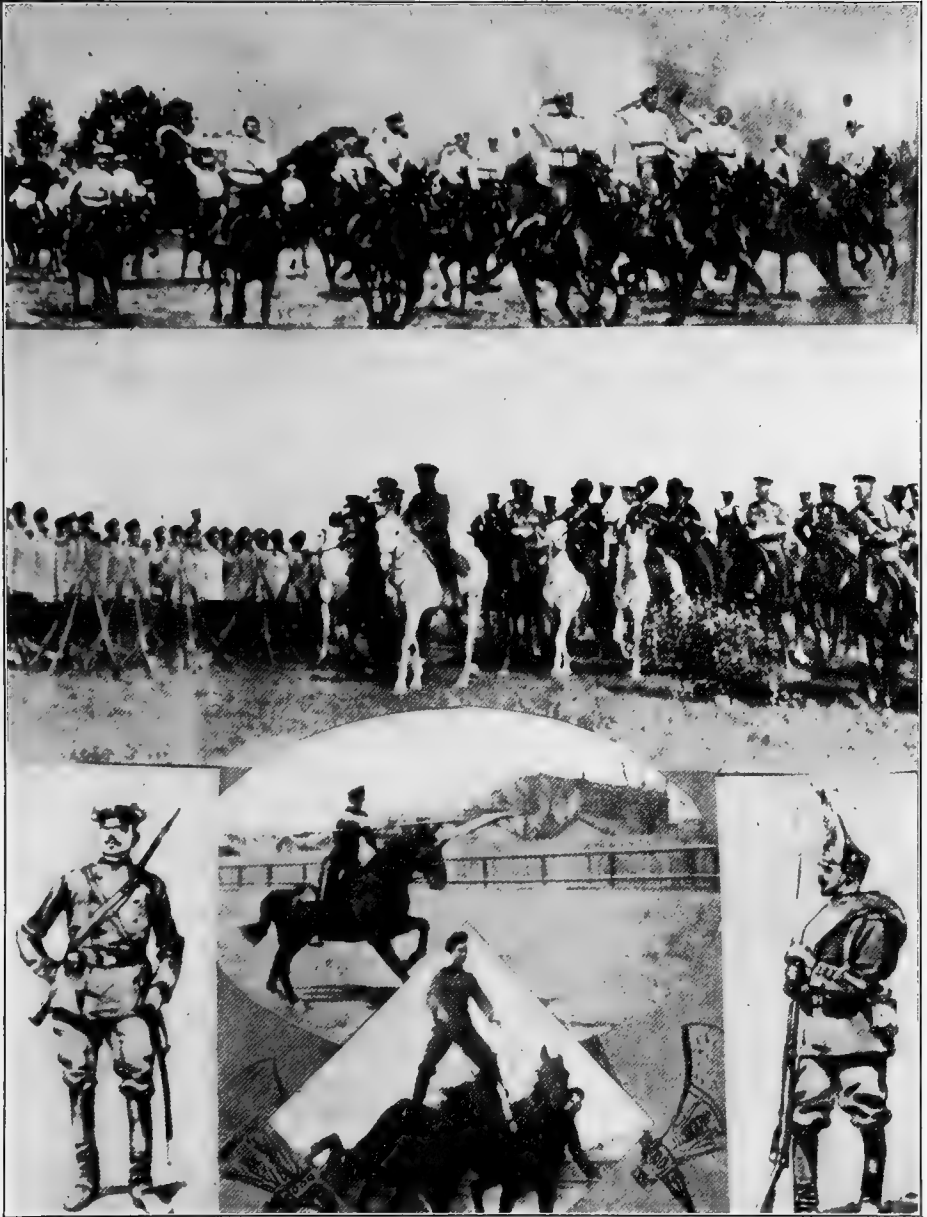
THE PAVILOFF REGIMENT OF HOUSEHOLD TROOPS



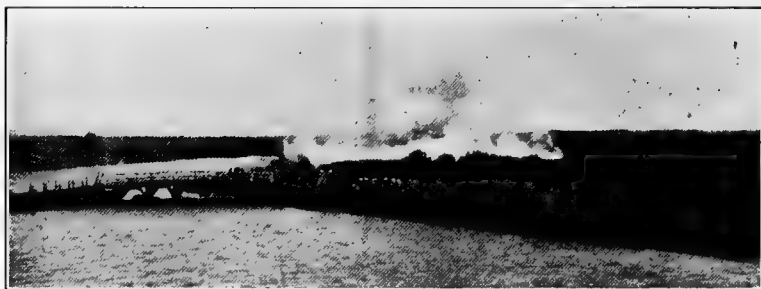
CUIRASSIER OF THE  
IMPERIAL GUARD IN  
DRESS UNIFORM



OFFICER OF THE  
IMPERIAL GUARD IN FIELD  
UNIFORM



SCENES OF MILITARY LIFE

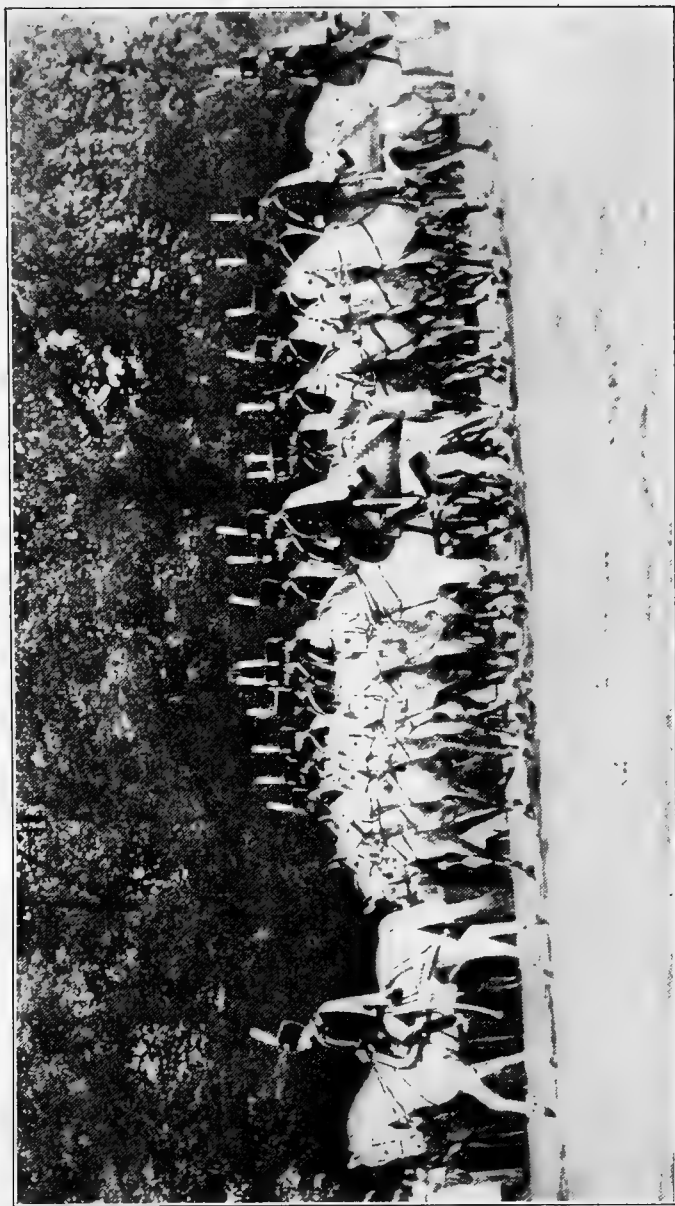


EXPLODING MINES

COSSACKS EXECUTING  
A DARING FEAT OF BALANCE

CHANGING THE GUARD





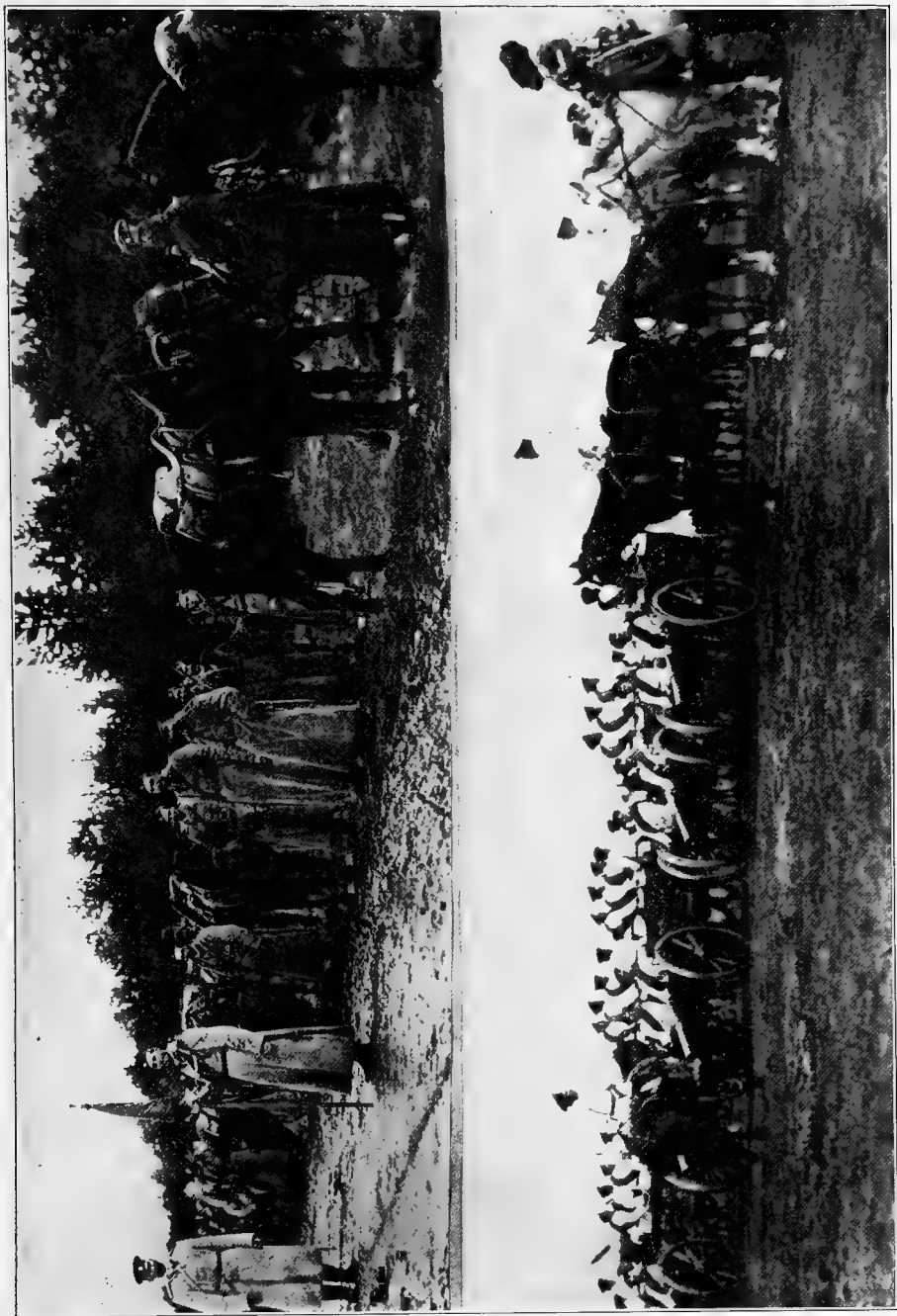
IMPERIAL GUARD OF THE WHITE HORSE COSSACKS



FORTRESS ARTILLERY

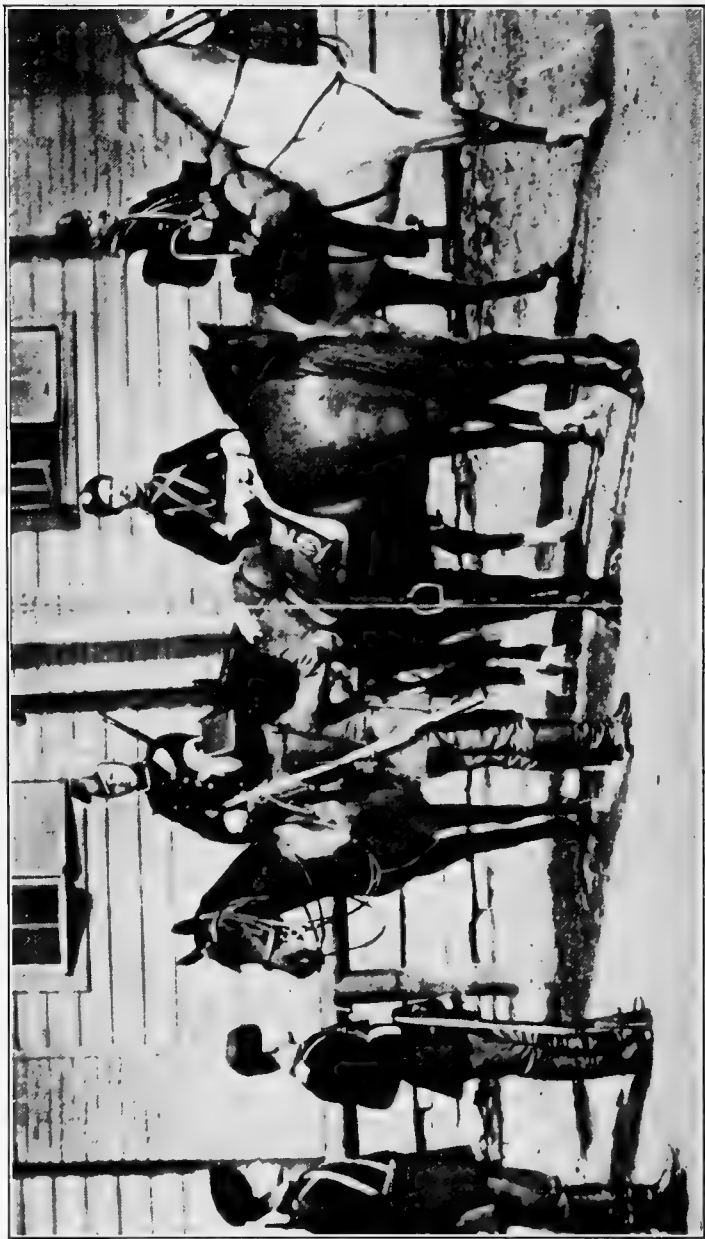


FIELD ARTILLERY



PREPARING FOR MANOEUVRES





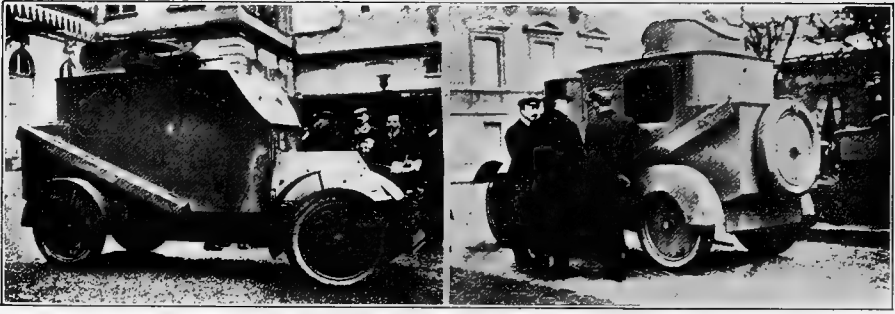
UHLANS AND COSSACKS



STAFF OFFICERS CONFERRING



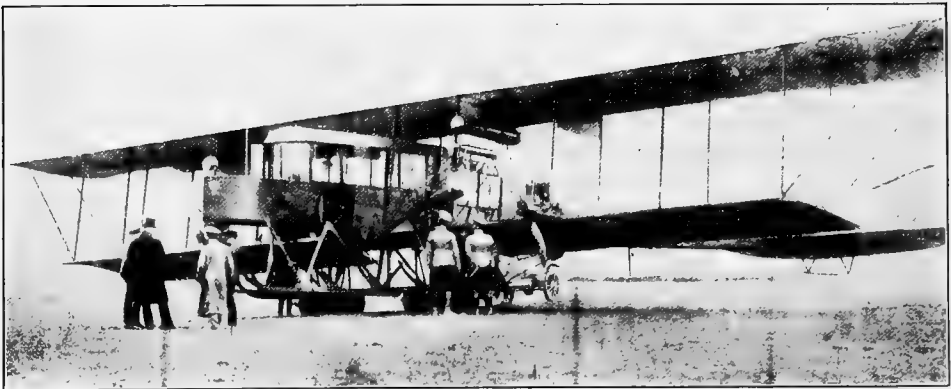
A THRILLING JUMP



ARMORED AUTOMOBILES



AEROPLANE CORPS



AEROPLANE RISING



THE CZAR

## THE NAVY

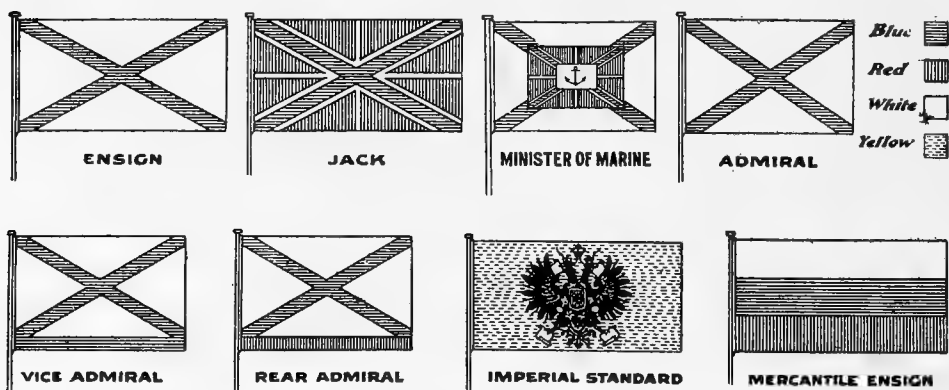
To Peter the Great (1689-1725), Russia owes the foundation of her navy. Previous to him no serious attempts were made to secure a fleet sufficient to protect her Black Sea coast, and the lack of good harbors rendered it impossible to maintain one in the north. Peter, however, was determined to make his country a maritime power. The White Sea was impracticable, Sweden menaced the Baltic, the Caspian alone remained. This was of little value, however, while the Turks held Azov. Peter attempted to capture this port from the land but failed. He saw that a fleet must be obtained. He immediately sent to Prussia and Austria for as many skilled workmen as money could buy, and set them at work in the forests of the Don. He lived with them night and day, until the fleet was built. Finally a fleet of 2 warships, 23 galleys, 4 fireships, and numerous smaller crafts besieged Azov and on July 18, 1696, the Turks were obliged to surrender. Peter established a naval station at Tazanrog, at the head of the Sea of Azov, and recommended to the Council of Boyars the urgent need of a powerful fleet in this region. Though successive rulers encouraged the navy, Russia did not have an important fleet. It was usually led and manned by foreigners. In 1770, during the reign of Catherine II, a fleet under the nominal command of her favorite, Orloff, but actually commanded by two former officers of the British Navy (John Elphinstone and Samuel Greig), gained some success against the Turks in the Levant. The fleet did not see much service until the Crimean War (1854), and then won little fame.

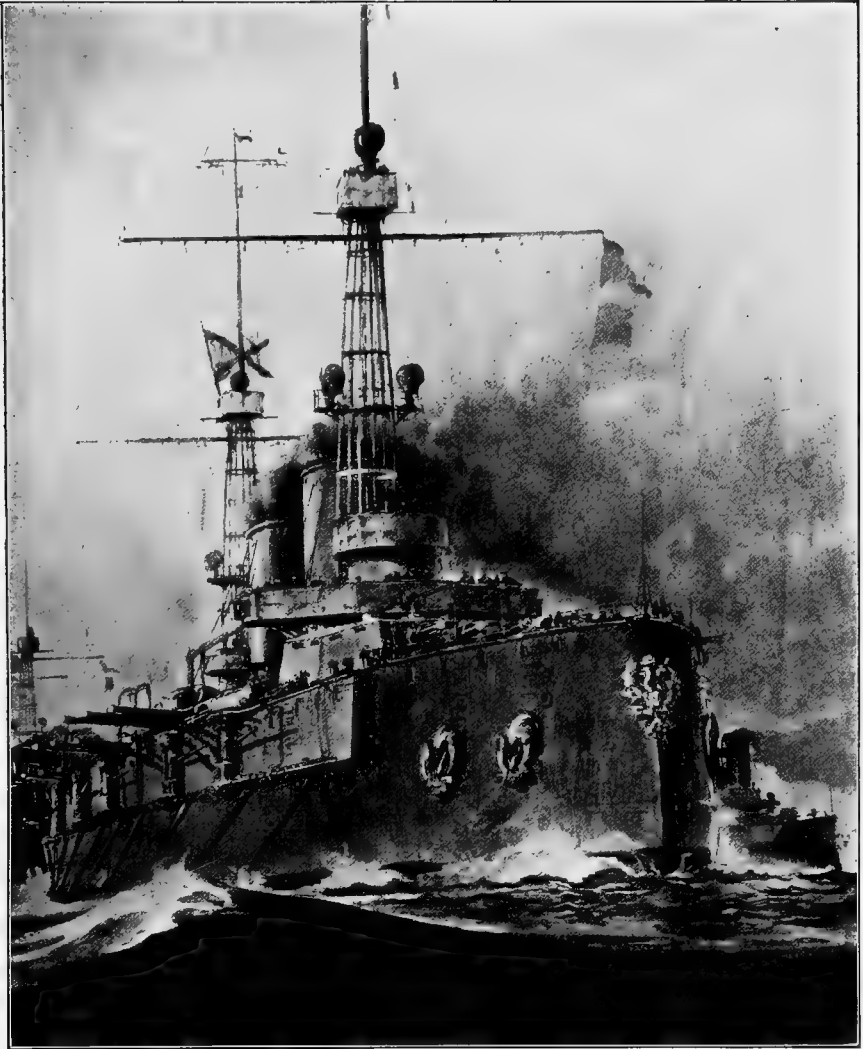
The Russian navy labors under peculiar difficulties which do not affect other countries, as owing to the geographical situation of the country she must maintain 4 distinct fleets, the most important of which are the Black Sea and Baltic fleets. Under Nicholas II every effort has been made to increase the strength and efficiency of the navy, and he has encouraged Russian



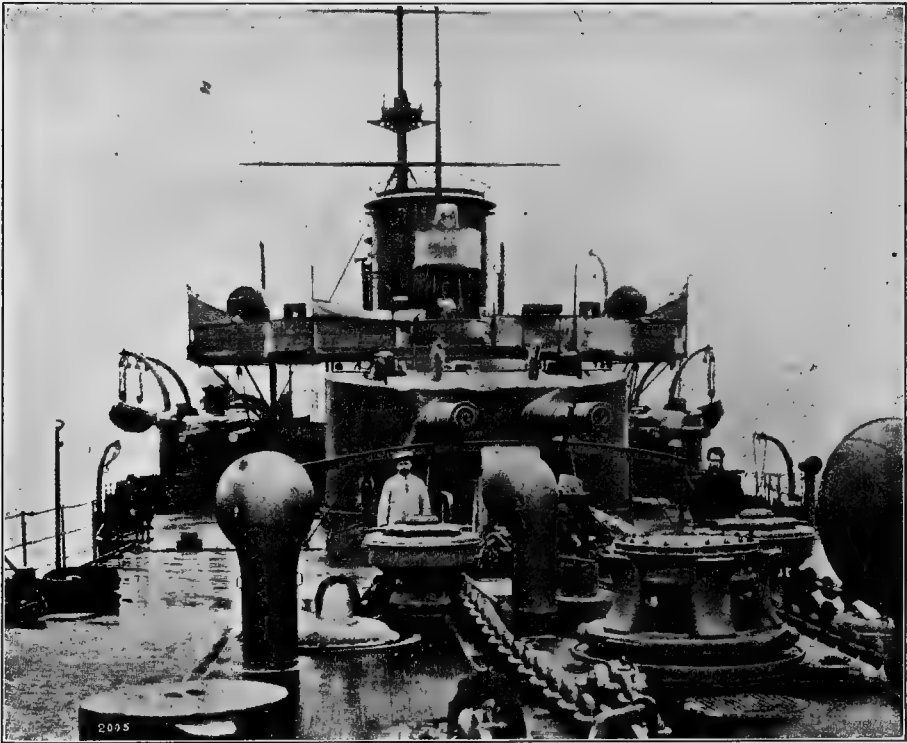
shipbuilding to the extent of entrusting to Russian firms the construction of 3 dreadnoughts (1911) for the Black Sea fleet. The building program has steadily increased since the Russo-Japanese War, and on April 1, 1911, Vice-Admiral Grigowitch introduced a bill providing for a definite standard for the Russian fleets. According to it, by 1924 the Baltic fleet is to have 16 battleships, 8 armored cruisers, 16 other cruisers, 92 torpedo boats and 24 submarines. The strength of the Black Sea fleet was to be "half as strong again as any possible combination of fleets in those waters" and it was decided to ask for annual appropriations for this fleet, as it was not possible at that time to know the exact naval strength of the other powers in that region. On June 19, 1912, the Duma appropriated \$251,000,000 for the construction of 4 battleships and 4 cruisers for the Baltic; 2 cruisers for the Black Sea, 2 for the Pacific, 3 flotillas, each of 12 destroyers, for the Baltic, 12 submarines for the Baltic, and 6 for Vladivostok; the dockyards and arsenals were to be enlarged and improved.

The number of men for the navy is fixed annually by law, and is recruited by conscription. While on the active list, the men are not allowed to marry. The administration is under the control of the minister of marine, who is at the head of the twelve departments on naval affairs. The admiralty





DREADNOUGHT "SEVASTOPOL"



FORECASTLE OF THE ARMORED CRUISER "RURIK"

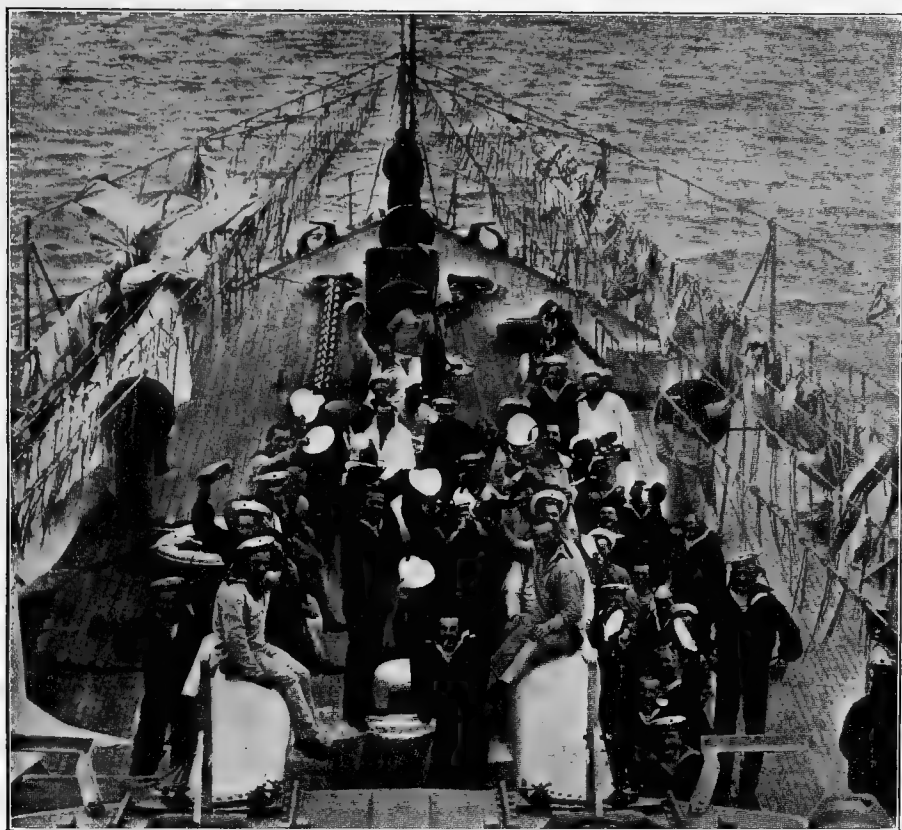
council which consists of the Minister of Marine, the assistant minister of marine and 5 flag officers, deals with everything connected with naval legislation and establishments.

The *personnel* in 1910 was about 53,500, including officers and men.

The following table gives the strength of the Russian Fleet in October, 1913.

	Built	Building
Battleships .....	9	7
Coast defence .....	1	
Battle cruisers .....		4
Armored cruisers .....	6	
Protected cruisers		
1st class .....	6	6
2nd class .....		2
3rd class .....	2	
Torpedo vessels .....	3	
Destroyers .....	96	9
Torpedo boats .....	26	
Submarines .....	29	7

In addition, Russia has 200 aeroplanes and 12 dirigibles (10 building). The naval expenditure for 1913-14 amounted to \$121,247,270.



SAILORS AT REST

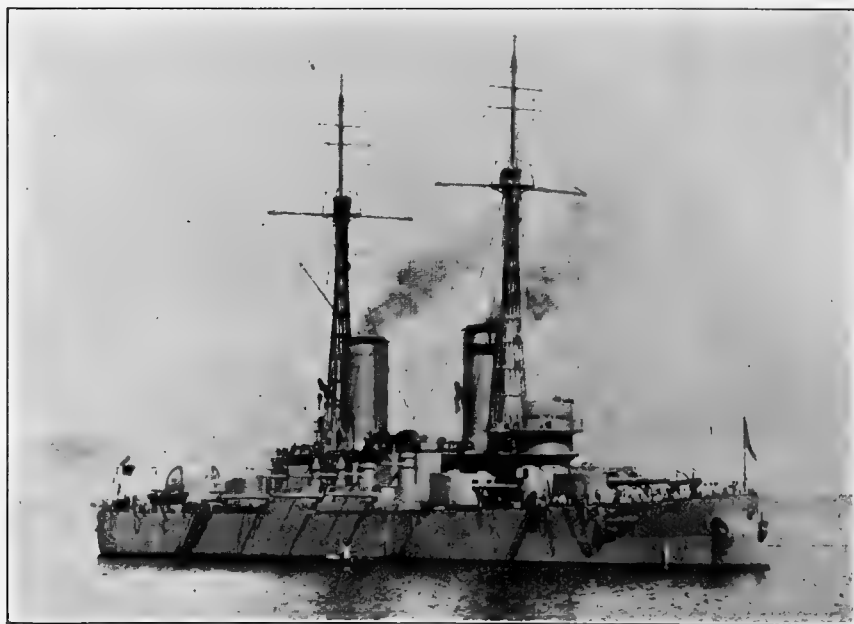


ARMORED CRUISER "RURIK"

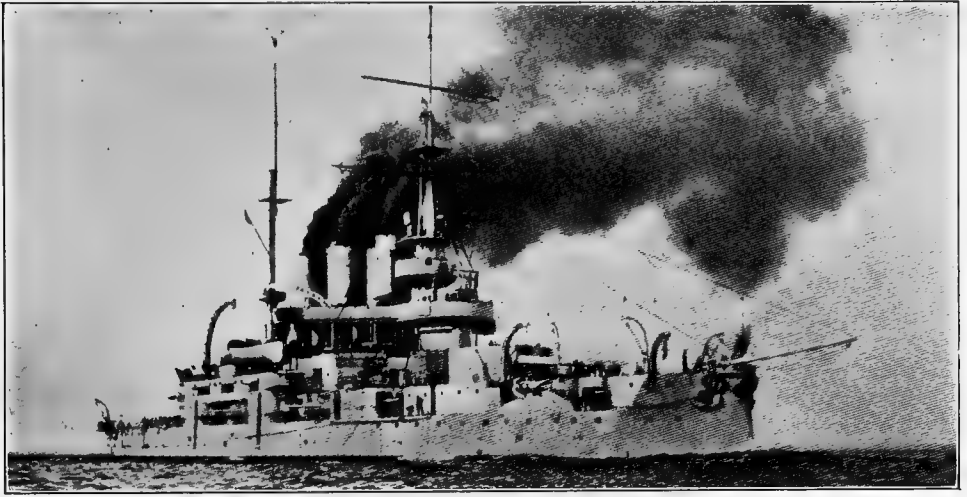




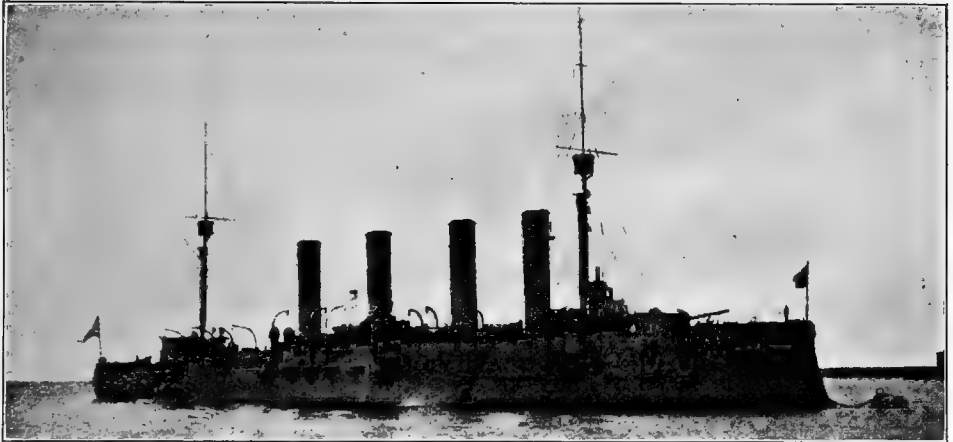
GUNNERY SCHOOL TRAINING SHIP "IMPERATOR ALEXANDER II"



BATTLESHIP "ANDREI PERVOSWANNI"



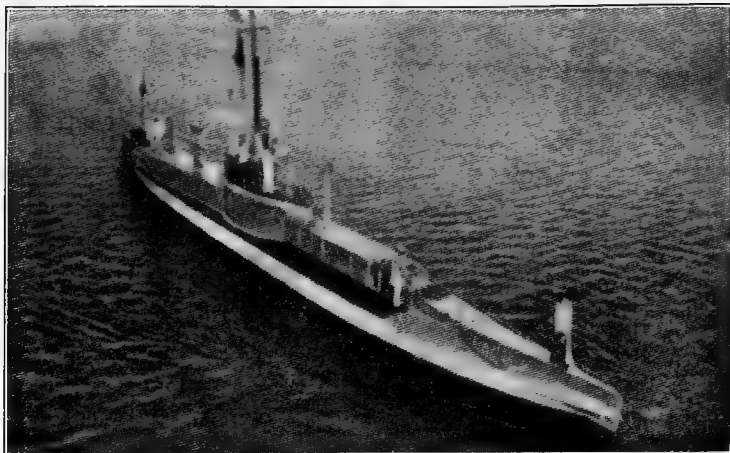
BATTLESHIP "PANTELIMON" OF THE BLACK SEA FLEET



ARMORED CRUISER "ADMIRAL MAKAROFF"



DESTROYER "BOYEVOI"



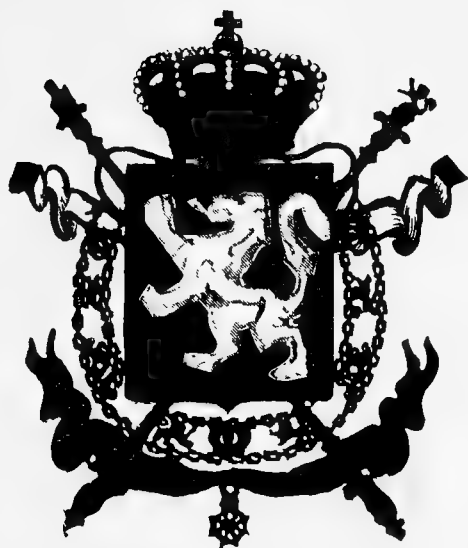
SUBMARINE "ALLIGATOR"



SUBMARINE "PESKAR"



DESTROYER "BOURAKOFF"



Belgium





ALBERT I





QUEEN ELIZABETH





PRINCESS MARIA-JOSÉ



PRINCE LEOPOLD



PRINCE CHARLES THEODORE



LEOPOLD II

## ALBERT I.

King Albert of Belgium was born on April 18, 1875, second son of Prince Philippe of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, Count of Flanders and of Princess Marie of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, and is the third of the Coburg line to occupy the throne of Belgium. By the sudden death of his brother, Prince Baldwin, in 1891, he came in line of succession, and by the death of his father in 1905, became heir apparent, as King Leopold's only son had died while yet a child. His military education began at the age of fifteen at the Brussels Military Academy, and he entered the army in 1892, being promoted within two years to the rank of lieutenant general. He continued his education, devoting special attention to mechanics, economics and social questions, gaining practical knowledge of his country's industries, by personally visiting factories and mines, even working as a miner. In 1898 he visited the Congo and the United States, spending some time in the Far West. On October 2, 1900, he married the Princess Elizabeth of Bavaria. Queen Elizabeth is one of the most learned princesses of Europe, following the scholarly traditions of her house, and holds a degree as Doctor of Medicine while she often gives her services to the poor. King Albert succeeded his uncle, Leopold II, on December 17, 1909, and has made himself most popular with his people.

The King and Queen have three children: Prince Leopold (b. on November 3, 1901), Prince Charles Theodore (b. on October 10, 1903), and Princess Maria-José (b. on August 4, 1906).

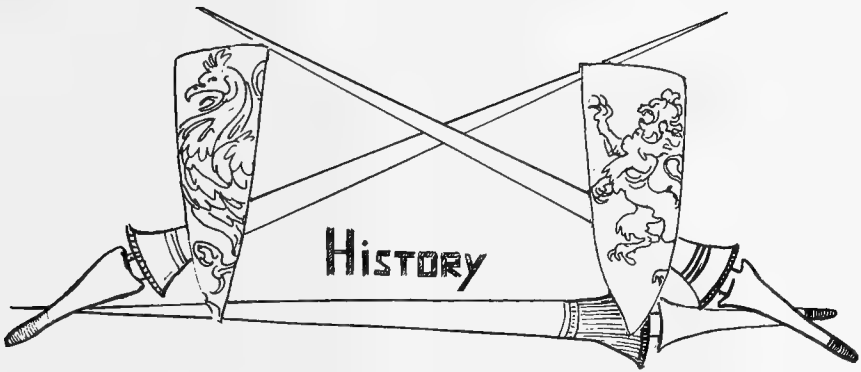


LEOPOLD I

### THE HOUSE OF WETTIN.

Coburg came into the possession of the Wettin family in the fourteenth century. The Wettins derive their name from their castle in Wettin on the Saale. The earliest known ancestor, Dietrich, Count of Hassegau or Hosgau, died in 982, and his sons, Dedo I and Frederick, received lands from the Wends. Dedo's son, Dietrich II, inherited these possessions and married Mathilda, daughter of the Margrave of Meissen. Their son, Dedo II, inherited the Saxon East Mark and Meissen. Thimo, who built a castle at Wettin, was the first to be called by this name. Conrad (1156) divided his lands among his five sons and the subsequent history of the family is identified with the ruling families of Meissen, Saxony, and the four Saxon duchies.

When the Wettins became Electors of Saxony, Coburg went to the Ernestine branch and passed from one branch to another until it was assigned to John Ernest (d. 1729), who took the title of Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld. His two sons, Christian Ernest and Francis Josiah, ruled the land jointly, but at the death of Christian the principle of primogeniture was adopted. The fourth son of Duke Francis (d. 1806) married the Princess Charlotte of England and in 1830 he accepted the offer of the Belgian crown and became Leopold I of Belgium. His grandson, Albert, is the present King of Belgium.



Originally Belgium formed part of the Netherlands or Low Countries. Julius Caesar (57 B. C.) in his "Commentaries" describes the Gallo-Celtic tribes dwelling in the section west of the Rhine, giving them the general name of Belgae. Under Augustus (15 B. C.) the conquered territory was formed into the province of Gallica Belgica, and the people became thoroughly Romanized. (For early history see *France and Germany*). By the Treaty of Verdun (843), Charlemagne gave the central portion of his empire (which included the Netherlands) to his son Lothair. At his death the northern part of the kingdom went to his son Lothair II, and was called Lotharii, later Lotharingia or Lorraine. The remoteness of Lower Lorraine favored the growth of independent duchies, chief of which were the Duchy of Brabant, the countries of Hainault, Holland, Gelderland, Limburg, Luxemburg and Flanders,

and the bishoprics of Utrecht and Liège. During the 9th and 10th centuries the country suffered cruelly from the attacks of the Northmen, but by the close of the 11th century feudalism was well established. The Crusades had a ready appeal for the Netherlands, from whom came such leaders as Godfrey of Bouillon, Duke of Lower Lorraine, leader of the First Crusade and King of Jerusalem. The Third Crusade called out Floris III of Holland, Philip of Flanders, Otto I of Gelderland, and Henry I of Brabant, while the Crusade of 1203 gave the crown of Constantinople to Baldwin of Flanders. The Crusades generally had a most favorable influence upon the Netherlands, broadening the people and increasing their wealth and commerce. This last had an important influence on the growth of the chartered towns, the most important of which were Bruges, Ghent and Yprés.

In the 13th century, these were large industrial centers, employed chiefly in the weaving of cloth and woolen goods. The cities by means of the organization of trade guilds were soon powerful enough to oppose the nobles, and under Jacques van Artevelde (1285-1345) of Ghent reached their greatest height of power, but after his death they declined, and the Netherlands, by purchase, marriage, or conquest, passed gradually into the control of the House of Burgundy, and later, by the marriage of Mary of Burgundy to Maximilian of Austria, to the Hapsburgs. The Emperor Charles V gave

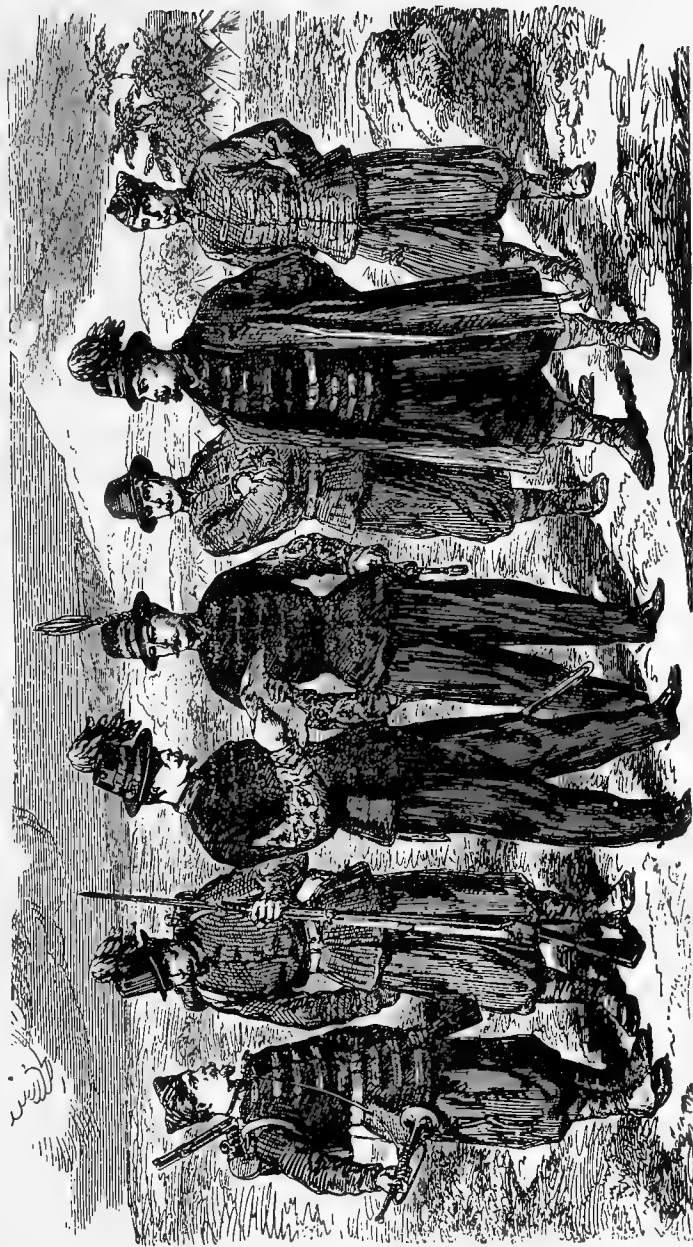
the Netherlands to his son, Philip II of Spain (October 25, 1555). For the next twenty-five years, Philip, through his generals the Duke of Alva and later Don John of Austria, waged a series of wars against William of Orange, who stood for the Protestant party. By this time, however, the acute rivalry between the two nationalities, forced a break between the Belgians and the Dutch. By the League of Arras (January 5, 1579), Hainault, Artois and Douai formed themselves into a league for the defense of the Catholic religion; the union of Utrecht (Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, Gelderland and Zutphen), followed on the 29th of the month and from this date the separate histories of Belgium and Holland, though Belgium remained under Spanish influence and was known as the Spanish Netherlands.

During the War of the Spanish Succession, Belgium was the scene of the hardest fighting. By the peace of Utrecht (1714) the country passed to the Emperor Charles VI and was known as the Austrian Netherlands. At the end of the 18th century discontent at Austrian rule had reached such proportions that on December 2, 1789, Brussels rebelled and drove out the Austrians. Brabant then declared her independence and on January 2, 1790 the Belgian United States came into effect. Belgium did not long enjoy her new position for she was conquered by the French from 1790 to 1794. In 1815 she was united to Holland under the Prince of Orange, but the union met with great opposition among the Belgians, by race, language and religion estranged from the Dutch. They revolted in 1830 and at the request of the King of the Netherlands, representatives of the five great powers met in London to arrange the differences between Belgium and Holland. The congress agreed on the independence of Belgium as an hereditary constitutional monarchy. On December 20, 1830 the dissolution of the Netherlands was declared, a constitution modelled on the British was drawn up, and Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg (widower of Princess Charlotte of England) was elected King. The Grand Duchy of Luxemburg and Maestricht was divided between Holland and Belgium, the Scheldt was declared open to both countries, the national debt was divided and the neutrality of Belgium was guaranteed. Under Leopold the country prospered. His son, Leopold II, made Flemish the official language of the Flemish provinces (French for the others), and settled the educational question. Proportional representation was adopted and the Congo was annexed (1908). His nephew, Albert, succeeded on December 17, 1909.

Belgium has an area of 11,373 sq. mi., and a population of 7,423,784. There are 2,822,005 people who speak only French, and 2,574,805, who speak only Flemish. The north is chiefly agricultural, and the south chiefly industrial. The country is rich in coal and iron, producing 23,054,000 metric tons of coal in 1911. The success of the industries generally is due in great part to the high standard of technical education prevailing. The exports for 1913-14 amounted to \$725,225,000 and the imports to \$916,725,000.

Belgian Congo has an area of 909,654 sq. mi., and a population (chiefly of Bantu origin) of about 15,000,000.

According to the constitution of 1831, Belgium is a constitutional monarchy, with the executive power vested in the King and his ministers, and the legislative vested jointly in the King, Senate and House of Representatives. The Senate consists of members elected for 8 years (total number 120, of whom 27 are elected by the provincial councils) partly directly and partly indirectly. The Representatives are all elected directly by the electoral body. Manhood suffrage prevails, based upon the plural vote and proportional representation of minorities.



UNIFORMS OF 1850





## THE ARMY.

The Belgium army may be said to have arisen during the 16th century, when the long struggle against Spain forced the United Provinces to maintain an army. During the wars against Louis XIV and in the war of the Spanish Succession, the Dutch and Belgians had a force of 100,000 men, which included, however, many English and Scottish regiments. At Malplaquet (1709) the flower of the army perished and by 1790 it numbered only 36,000 men. Conquered by the French during 1790-95, the army was thoroughly re-organized on French lines and served the Empire well.

Since 1830 Belgium has maintained an excellent army. On December 14, 1900 and again on June 19, 1913 laws were passed for its organization. The army is recruited partly by voluntary enlistment and partly by conscription (49 per cent. of the annual contingent). The voluntary recruits serve from 15 to 24 months (according to the arm) with the colors, and for the remainder of the 8 years in the first line army; 5 years more are spent in the 2nd line of reserves, with periodical training. The compulsory recruit serves 15 months in the infantry, garrison artillery and engineers, 1 year 9 months in the field artillery and 2 years in the cavalry. The other service is the same. The annual levy is small and substitution is permitted. All physically fit and not otherwise needed, are enrolled in the Garde Civique, which has the duty of maintaining public order, but can furnish in time of war about 45,000 men (with a reserve of 100,000) for garrison duty and use along the lines of communication. The Gendarmerie, a semi-military corps, half of it mounted, furnishes a squadron for each field division as divisional cavalry.





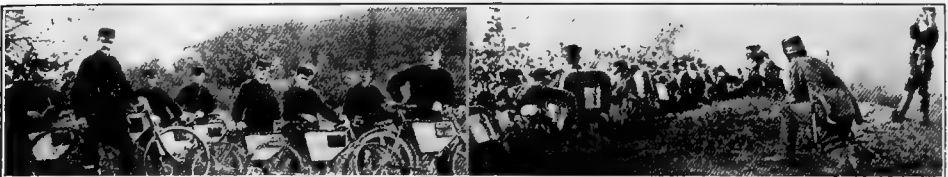
INFANTRY READY FOR ACTION

The peace establishment in 1913 was as follows:

	Officers	Men
General Staff . . . . .	38	
Staff . . . . .	46	
Administration . . . . .	271	437
Medical Corps . . . . .	230	
Veterinary . . . . .	45	
Provincial Staff . . . . .	34	
Infantry . . . . .	1,745	25,070
Cavalry . . . . .	304	5,671
Artillery . . . . .	636	9,041
Train . . . . .	29	291
Engineers . . . . .	164	1,551
Civilians . . . . .		200
Various . . . . .		1,800
Total . . . . .	3,542	44,061

According to the law of 1913, the peace establishment was to be maintained at a strength of 57,886. In time of war, with the aid of all classes of the reserves, this force could be raised to 340,000. Belgium also has an aeronautical company, consisting of an aeronautical school and several sections of 4 aeroplanes each. In 1914 she had 1 dirigible (1 building) and 40 aeroplanes.

The army expenditure voted in 1914 amounted to \$20,219,250.





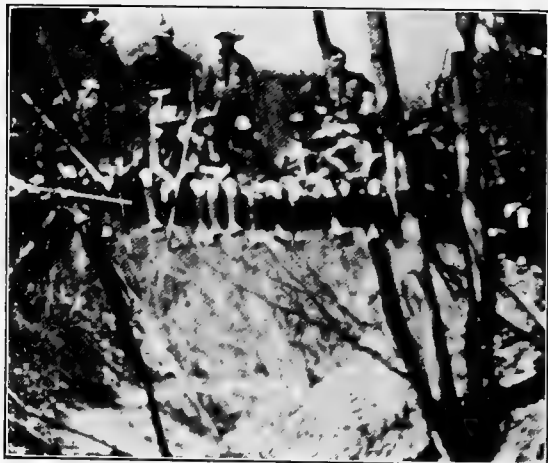
"MARCHING"



"RESTING"



INFANTRY CROSSING A RIVER

WAITING  
FOR  
ACTIONBOY  
SCOUTS

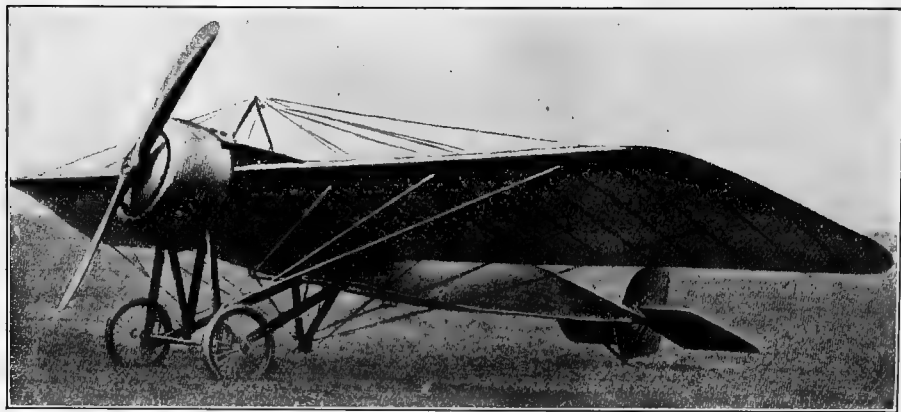
FIELD  
ARTILLERY



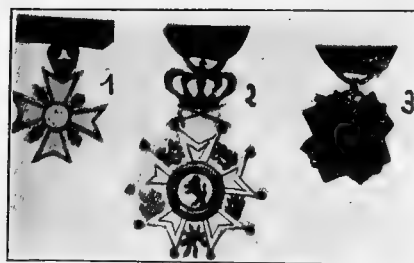
ARTILLERY  
PRACTICE

THE  
GUARDS





SCOUTING AEROPLANE OF THE AERIAL FLEET



1. CIVIL ORDER
2. ORDER OF LEOPOLD
3. CIVIL ORDER OF MERIT



Luxemburg

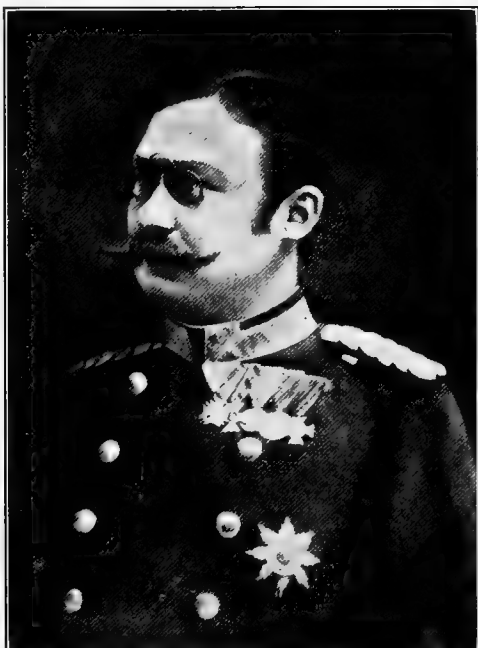


GRAND DUCHESS MARIE





GRAND DUCHESS  
MARIE ANNE



THE LATE GRAND DUKE  
WILLIAM

### GRAND DUCHESS MARIE

The Grand Duchess Marie Adelaide was born on June 14, 1894, the oldest daughter of the Grand Duke William and of the Grand Duchess Marie Anne, who is a sister of Dom Miguel of Braganza. On the death of her father on February 25, 1912, she succeeded to the throne, but as she did not attain her majority until June of that year, her mother acted as regent. In June she was installed as sovereign of Luxemburg and at the same time came into possession of the large fortune of the Nassau family.

The Grand Duchess has five sisters: the Princesses Charlotte Adelgonde (b. Jan. 28, 1896), Hilda Sophie (b. Feb. 15, 1897), Antoinette Roberte (b. Oct. 7, 1899), Elizabeth Marie (b. March 7, 1901), and Sophie Caroline (b. Feb. 14, 1902).





Wedged in between Belgium, Germany and France, lies the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg. About 50 miles long and 30 miles wide, this tiny triangular country has been the theatre for the whole drama of Western European history. Many countries have fought for it; many rulers cast envious eyes upon it; many peoples settled on its lands,—but all through its crowded career the Luxemburgians have preserved their own physical, racial and ethical character. Luxemburg is a land of varied beauty. In the north (Oesling) stretch the wooded heights of the Ardennes, a wild and picturesque region that can vie with any in Europe for romantic interest and eerie glamor. The climate has a sharpness and severity unknown in the south, and yet every available acre is under the richest and most careful cultivation. The south (Gutland) melts into the plains of Lorraine.

Under Lothair II the Duchy was included in Lotharingia or Lorraine, and for 500 years belonged to its natural ally Germany (see *Belgium and Germany*). There was a certain Wiric (Weirich), Count of Ardenne, who claimed descent from Charlemagne. Upon his son Henry, Archbishop Bruno of Cologne conferred the administration of High Lorraine, and Henry's brother Siegfried became the founder of the House of Luxemburg, and the father of a race of emperors, kings, archbishops, counts, knights, cathedral builders, crusaders and saints. Siegfried proved a wise ruler and founded the present city of Luxemburg.

In 723 Charles Martel fell ill at Trier. The Monks laid him on St. Maximin's tomb, and in gratitude for his recovery, Charles made over to the convent four districts which he possessed in Austrasia. One of these was called Urismaris Ecclesia or Weimerskirch, and near it stood an old ruined fort, built, according to tradition, by the Emperor Gallienus in the 3rd century. It was called Lucilenburhut or Laetilingonoburgum (a little outpost). Siegfried made it into a fortified castle, and the town gradually grew up around it, while the changing tongue of the people softened its name from Lutzelbourg to Luxemburg.

By the Congress of Vienna (1815), the Duchy went to William I of Holland, Prince of Orange-Nassau-Vianden, and descended from the old House of Luxemburg, and the Duchy was incorporated into the Germanic confederation. The Treaty of London (1839) finally settled the limits of the Duchy; the Walloon section went to Belgium to form the Belgian province of Luxemburg, and the Duchy was reduced to about one-quarter of its size under its first Duke, Wenceslaus I. It was made a hereditary kingdom under the males of the Nassau family and was ruled by the Kings of Holland. William II drafted the constitution, and placed Luxemburg under the German Zollverein. Upon the death of William III in 1890, Prince Adolf William of the elder branch of the family succeeded. He died in 1905 and his son became Grand Duke, but owing to his illness, his wife, the Grand Duchess Marie Anne, acted as regent. On April 16, 1907, a family arrangement was concluded whereby the succession was to go to his eldest daughter, as he had no sons, and on July 10, 1907, a law was passed in the Duchy confirming this decision. On the death of her father in 1905, the Grand Duchess Marie became ruler of Luxemburg.

In 1867, by an agreement of the Great Powers, Luxemburg was made a neutral State and the fortifications of the capital were demolished. There is no army, with the exception of a guard of about 150, and a gendarmerie of 150 more.

The Duchy is a constitutional monarchy, with a chamber of deputies (53 members, elected directly by the cantons for 6 years, half renewed every 3 years). It is in session but four months in the year. The Duchy has an area of 998 sq. mi. and a population of 259,891 (1910).



Montenegro



NICHOLAS I





PRINCE DANILO AND STAFF



ORDER OF DANILO I

## NICHOLAS I.



Nicholas I was born on October 7, 1841, and received his education at Trieste and Paris, where the news of the assassination of his uncle Danilo II (August, 1860) reached him. Upon his accession he decided to carry out the reforms begun by Danilo, and has proved a very liberal monarch. He established schools, legal tribunals, and administrative bureaus, and in 1905 granted a liberal constitution to the people. Under his wise and careful rule the country has made remarkable progress, and the people have prospered. He has especially encouraged literature and is a writer and poet of considerable ability. "The Queen of the Balkans" and "Prince Arnavit" have been translated into several languages.

On November 8, 1860, he married the Princess Milena, daughter of Peter Vukotic, Senator and Vice-President of the Council of State. There are nine children: Princess Militza (b. July 26, 1866; married in 1888 the Grand Duke Peter Nikolaievitch of Russia), Princess Stana (b. Jan. 4, 1868; married in 1889 the Duke of Leuchtenberg, and in 1907 the Grand Duke Niolas Nikolaievitch), Prince Danilo Alexander, heir apparent (b. June 29, 1871; married in 1899 the Princess Jutta of Mecklenburg-Strelitz,) Princess Helena (b. Jan. 8, 1873; married in 1896 King Victor Emanuel of Italy), Princess Anna (b. Aug. 18, 1874; married in 1897 Prince Francis Joseph of Battenberg), Prince Mirko (b. April 17, 1879; married in 1902 Natalie Constantinovich), Princess Xenia (b. Apr. 22, 1881), Princess Vera (b. Feb. 22, 1887), and Prince Peter (b. Oct. 10, 1889).



## HISTORY



Montenegro formed part of the Roman province of Illyria, and belonged first to Rome and then to Constantinople, acknowledging the ecclesiastical authority of the latter. During the 6th and 7th centuries it passed into the control of the Serbs, who still form the majority of the population. The Serb principality of the Zeta (Zenta) included Montenegro, which shared the fortunes of Servia until the battle of Kossovo (see *Servia*). The Montenegrins withdrew to the shelter of their mountain fastnesses from which they waged a continual warfare with the Turks. Ivan the Black (c. 1484) established his capital at Cetinje, where he founded a monastery and bishopric. From then until 1696, the people were ruled by the Bishops of Cetinje, who were elected by assemblies of the chiefs and people and consecrated by the Patriarch of Ipek. They were assisted in matters of defense by a civil governor. In 1696 the people decided to revive the hereditary principle and called in Danilo Petrovitch of Niegush (founder of the present reigning family). The succession was henceforth from uncle to nephew, owing to the rule of celibacy of the monastic order. Under Danilo I occurred the massacre of the Turks (Montenegrin Vespers of 1702), the defeat of the Turks at Tzarevlatz (1712), the capture of Cetinje by the Turks (1714), and the opening of relations with Russia by Danilo's visit to Peter the Great. Peter I (1782-1830) joined the Austrian and Russian forces against Turkey, defeating her in the battle of Krussa (1796), annexed the Brda region, obtained formal recognition of the independence of Montenegro from the Sultan in 1799, re-organized the internal administration, and promulgated the first code



VETERANS

of laws. Peter II (1830-51) instituted a senate (1831), abolished the office of civil governor, revived the national printing press and did much for the education of his people. His nephew, Danilo II, refused the ecclesiastical dignity, assumed the title of *gospoda* (prince), thus settling the succession on the direct male heir, defeated the Turks near Ostroy (1853), and promulgated a new code giving civil and religious liberty to the people. He was assassinated on August 11, 1860, and his nephew, Nicholas, succeeded. Prince Nicholas entered upon a disastrous war with the Turks, after which the country suffered greatly from pestilence and famine. Montenegro joined the Russo-Turkish War of 1877, and obtained Nikshitch, Antivari and Dulcigno, recovering the seaboard which had been lost since the Middle Ages. Nicholas reformed the army, initiated schemes of education and granted a constitution (1905). In 1906 the first Parliament met and on August 28, 1910, Prince Nicholas assumed the title of King. From 1880, till the Balkan troubles of 1912, the country had remained at peace, developing its internal resources, but in 1912, Montenegro joined the Balkan League and fought valiantly against the Turks. By the treaty of Bucharest (July 25, 1913) she obtained 168 sq. mi. of Scutari, and 1,961 sq. mi.

of Kossovo. In the present European war she allied herself with Servia.

Montenegro has a total area of 5,603 sq. mi. and a population of 516,000 (including 230,000 in the new territories). The people are chiefly pastoral and agricultural, and the great majority are Serbo-Croats.

The government is vested in the King, Council of State, which consists of the Crown Prince, Metropolitan Bishop, all ministers, and councillors appointed by the King, and *Skupschtina* (members elected for 4 years).

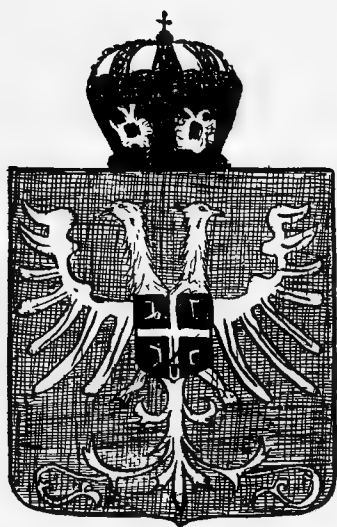


THE ARMY.

Every Montenegrin is a soldier, his weapon is never left aside and military distinction is his high ambition. The long and desperate struggle for national existence has developed in him an unrivalled aptitude for guerilla warfare, and until the middle of the 19th century, the army consisted only of undisciplined bands of tribesmen, under local chiefs. The supreme command, however, remained with the prince. Peter II started a permanent army, with the formation of the *perianiki*, a bodyguard of picked men; Danilo II ordered the enrollment (1853) of all persons capable of bearing arms and created the offices of general, colonel and captain. The organization, which was based somewhat on the tribal system, was revised by Servian officers, who were called in (1870) to assist in training the soldiers. Since that year, Russia has furnished the chief supply of arms. Prince Nicholas re-organized the army thoroughly in accordance with modern methods.

According to the law of 1910, military service is compulsory from the age of 18 to 62. The soldier serves 2 years with the colors (with 6 months' training each year, though in practice it amounts to 3 months in the artillery and 2 in the other branches, each year); then the soldier belongs for 33 years to the active army, and for 8 years to the reserve. The active army is divided into two classes: those fit for active service and those fit for less taxing duties, such as transport, supply or medical. The active army may be called up for not more than 15 days' service in the year. Those unable to perform military service by reason of physical unfitness, pay a special military tax, which varies according to their means. There is no cavalry.

The war strength of the army is about 50,000 men, and in 1913 Montenegro spent \$900,000 for military purposes, receiving in addition a subsidy of about \$350,000 from Russia.



Servia

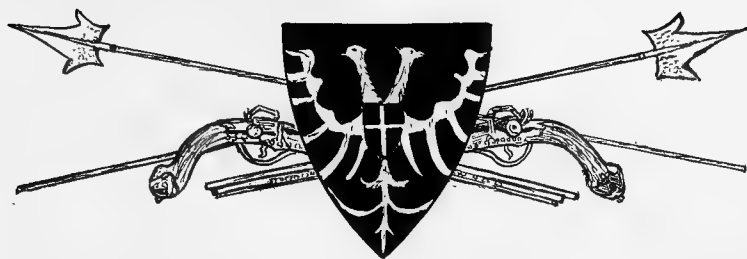






PETER I





CROWN PRINCE ALEXANDER



## PETER I.

King Peter Karageorgevich I, was born on June 29 (O. S.), 1844. He is the grandson of George Czerny, surnamed Karageorge (Black George), who was elected the head of the nation's forces in the Servian insurrection against the Turks in the beginning of the 19th century. Those who favored this family formed a conspiracy against Alexander I, who represented the Obrenovich line, and on June 11, 1903, Alexander I and Queen Draga were assassinated. The throne was offered to Peter who accepted it. King Peter was very popular as a young man, and earned the title of the "Red Prince" on account of his socialistic views. Though he came to the throne under a shadow, his reign has been apparently acceptable to the majority. He married in 1883, a daughter of the Prince of Montenegro, Princess Zorka, who died in 1890. He has two sons, Prince George (b. in 1887) and Prince Alexander (b. in 1888), and a daughter, Princess Helene (b. in 1884). In 1909, Prince George voluntarily renounced his rights to the succession and his brother, Prince Alexander, was recognized as heir to the throne.



1. ORDER OF ST. SAVA
2. ORDER OF THE WHITE EAGLE
3. ORDER OF TAKOVO



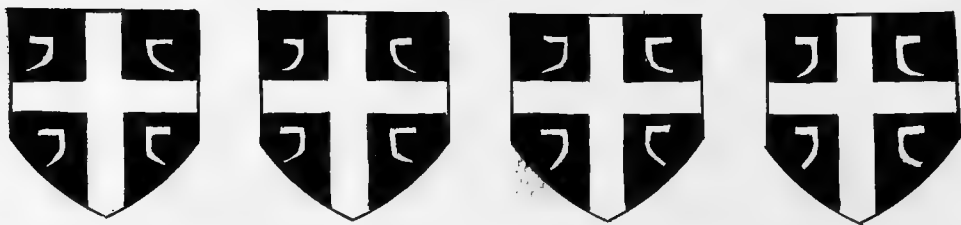
M. PASHITCH

Prime Minister

GENERAL  
PUTNICKCHIEF OF  
STAFF

M. NIKIHFOROFF

Minister of War



## HISTORY.

According to the earliest records, the Serbs are a Slavonic people, who were found dwelling along the Wissla and Dneister Rivers in Galicia before the sixth century. Early in this century they migrated to the Black Sea, and then advanced westward along the left bank of the Danube, crossing the river and occupying the northwestern part of the Balkan peninsula. They came into conflict with the Greeks, but the Emperor Heraclius finally made peace with them and confirmed them in their new possessions as long as they recognized his suzerainty. But the Serbs did not at once build up a cohesive state, owing to reasons partly racial and partly political. They had a system of *Zhupanias* (whereby each clan or a group of related clans occupied a certain section of the country), under the leadership of a chief or *Zhupan*. These *Zhupanias* were all independent of one another, and there was a constant struggle for supremacy among the more powerful ones. The difficulties of union were further increased by the internal dissensions of each *Zhupaniya*, caused by the old Slavonic idea of inheritance, whereby the power went to the oldest member of the family, rather than from father to son. Further complications arose from the rivalry between the Greek Empire on one side and Hungary and Venice on the other, to possess a dominating influence in the Servian lands. With the rise of the Bulgarian nation in the 7th century, the Serbs were forced to divide their allegiance, and from the 8th to the 12th centuries, acknowledged the Bulgarian (Greek) or Venetian and Hungarian power.

Attempts at union, however, were made many times, but never succeeded for long. Zhupan Visheslav, Vlastivir (under whom the Serbs embraced Christianity between 871-875), and St. Vladimir were the most successful leaders, but it was left to Stephen Nemanya, Zhupan of Rashka (1169), to unite all the Serbs under one rule, and hence he may be considered the real founder of the Servian kingdom, over which his descendants ruled for two hundred years. During this period, Servia kept pace with the general development of European civilization, and in manners, customs and general education compared favorably with the rest of Europe. From this period date her great epics and the people to this day, in their folk songs, sing of the heroic deeds of that time. In 1349 Stephen Dushan convoked at Uskub the *Sabor* (Parliament) to begin the codification of the laws and legal customs, which was published under the title of *Zakonik Tsara Dushana*. The Turks began their incursions about this time, and in 1371 the Serbs suffered from them a severe check, which became an utter defeat at the battle of Kossovo in 1389. The Serbs attempted to rally their forces, and under Hunyadi Janos defeated the Turks at Kunovista, forcing the Sultan to make peace. He restored to the Serbs the lands which had been confiscated, and acknowledged Prince George as their ruler. The Serbs made another appeal to Europe, but she refused any further aid and the Serbs were again obliged to yield to the Turks, who in 1459 laid waste the country and made it a *pashalik* under the direct control of the Porte.



For the next 300 years Serbia declined, suffering all the miseries of Turkish oppression, unable to develop a national life or the natural resources of the country. Subject to constant inroads and massacres, the people were barely able to preserve their existence. The Serbs formed willing volunteers to the Austrian armies in the 18th century during their campaigns against the Turks, and Turkish rule was so far weakened by 1804 that the Serbs were able to make an effective revolt. They elected George Petrovich (Karageorge) in national assembly commander-in-chief of the national forces and the leader of the nation. The Turks were swept out in 1807, and the Sultan offered to grant the Serbs self-government and to acknowledge George as Prince. The Serbs, however, relying on Russian aid, refused, preferring to join the Russians against Turkey; but when conditions at home forced Russia to sign hastily the treaty of Bucharest, Servian interests were forgotten and the country was left again to the Turks, who occupied the country in force. Milosh was appointed ruler and succeeded in organizing the Serbs once more against the Turks, with the result that by the treaty of Adrianople (1829), full autonomy was granted the Serbs, though Turkish garrisons were permitted to remain in Servian fortresses. Milosh was declared hereditary prince, and worked zealously for the country's welfare under great difficulties, but his autocratic methods displeased the people and he clashed with Russia. Hence he was forced to abdicate in 1839. His younger son, Michael, ascended the throne, but was also forced to abdicate in 1842, when Alexander Karageorgevich (younger son of Karageorge) became ruler. Though the country prospered, his Austrian tendencies and refusal to summon the national assembly dissatisfied the people. Milosh was summoned back to power, and was succeeded by his son Michael in 1860. Michael proved a wise and liberal ruler, organized the national army, and formed alliances with Greece, Montenegro, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Bulgaria and Albania, in preparation for an uprising against the Turks. In 1867 he formally demanded that the Porte should deliver up all the fortresses held in Servia, and the Sultan, advised by Europe, yielded. His success aroused the jealousy of the supporters of the Karageorgevich dynasty and Michael was assassinated on June 10, 1868. The national assembly proclaimed Milan (son of Michael's cousin) Prince of Servia.



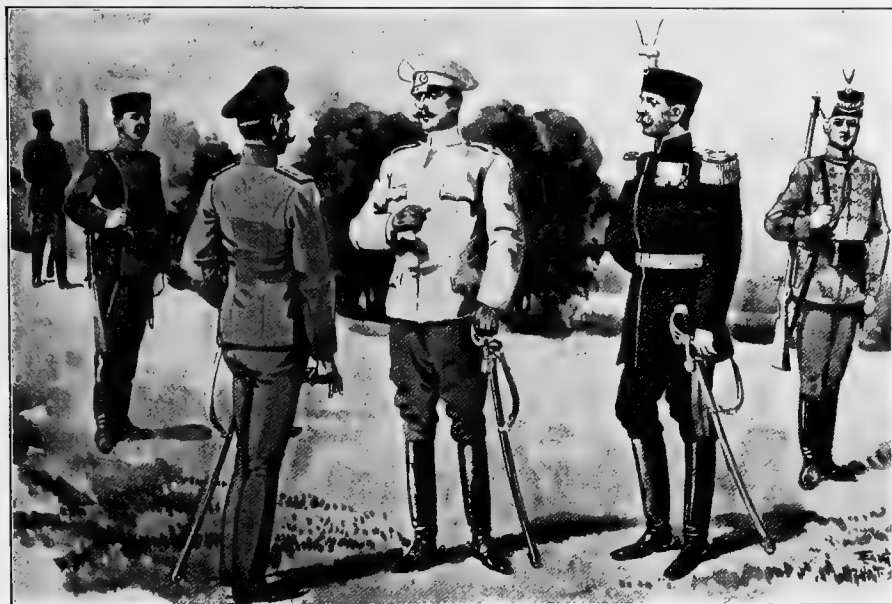


Milan at first favored Russian interests, but receiving little from the war of 1877 (between Turkey and Russia) tried to conciliate Austria. The Congress of Berlin (1878) guaranteed the complete independence of the country but gave little else, and from then until 1889, there was a constant struggle between Milan and the progressives on one side and the radicals and Russian influence on the other. Milan was hampered in his reforms by financial difficulties and the Servo-Bulgarian war, but granted a very liberal constitution in January, 1889, and then resigned in favor of his young son, Alexander, leaving the country to a regency. Under Alexander, a conservative party arose, in reaction against the constant quarrels between the Liberals and Radicals, and the country turned its attention to agriculture and commerce, while the foreign policy began to lean towards Austria. Alexander's unfortunate marriage with Queen Draga, brought him great unpopularity, which was increased by his reactionary constitution of 1901. The adherents of the Karageorgevich family took advantage of the discontent and Alexander and Draga were assassinated on June 11, 1903. Peter Karageorgevich (grandson of Karageorge) was declared King. Europe accepted Peter very reluctantly, but by 1906 he was everywhere recognized. The idea of a "Great Serbia" now began to take possession of the people; they agitated for the reunion of Bosnia-Herzegovina, Montenegro and Old Serbia into a Servian Empire, but were forced to accede to the annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina in 1908 by Austria. In 1912, however, Serbia felt strong enough to assert herself, and joined the Balkan League, entering upon the first Balkan War. In this war Serbia fought (in common with the other Balkan States), with a brilliance and ability that surprised Europe, and at Monastir and Durazzo won splendid victories. Turkey was defeated, and negotiations for peace were under way, when differences arose between Bulgaria and Serbia, which led to the second Balkan War. The Balkans finally secured peace by the Treaty of Bucharest (July 25, 1913), whereby Serbia gained 1,795 sq. mi. of Salonika, 3,473 sq. mi. of Monastir and 9,973 sq. mi. of Kossovo.

Servia has an area of 33,891 sq. mi. and a population of 4,547,992 (2,911,701 in Old Servia, 1,636,291 in New Servia). The chief industry is agriculture, nearly every peasant cultivating his own freehold.

According to the constitution of 1889, the executive power is vested in the King and his ministers, and the legislative in the King in conjunction with the

national assembly and council of State. The national assembly is elected by the people; the council of State consists of 8 members elected by the assembly and 8 appointed by the King.



OFFICERS

## THE ARMY.

Servia may be said to have been always in arms, but the constant guerilla struggle with the Turks allowed neither time nor means for a regularly organized army on European lines. In the 19th century, however, Servia paid considerable attention to the organization of her army. Prince Michael (1860) reformed the administration, but the army had no reputation in Europe. Early in this century, Servia began seriously to drill and perfect her armed force, which owing to the enthusiasm of the people, and the inspiration of a popular cause, won a high reputation during the Balkan War of 1912-13, and at the opening of hostilities, Servia was able to put into the field about 190,000 men. Though Bulgaria had promised to send 100,000 to assist the Serbs in the Macedonian campaign, she changed her plans at the last minute, and Servia had to advance without this assistance. However, in conjunction with Montenegro, the Serbs won the battle of Kumanova, and obtained possession of Novibazar; but the defection of Bulgaria was not forgotten, and in the Second Balkan War, she was completely defeated (Semitli, July 25-27, 1913). Though the numerical strength of their army was reduced by these wars, the Serbs were almost compensated by the gain in national pride and confidence.

Military service is compulsory, from the age of 18 to 50, though recruits may enter at 21 and complete their service at 45. The soldier serves one and a half years in the infantry (two in the cavalry and artillery); he then passes into the reserve to complete 10 years and serves 6 years more in the 2nd ban and 8 years more in the 3rd. The kingdom is divided into 5 divisional areas, each

supplying a division of the active army of 2 infantry brigades, a field artillery regiment and a regiment of divisional cavalry. There is also a cavalry division of 4 regular regiments, recruited from the whole country. The total peace strength (1912) was 2,038 officers and 28,000 men, which, with the aid of all effective reserves, could be raised to 195,000.

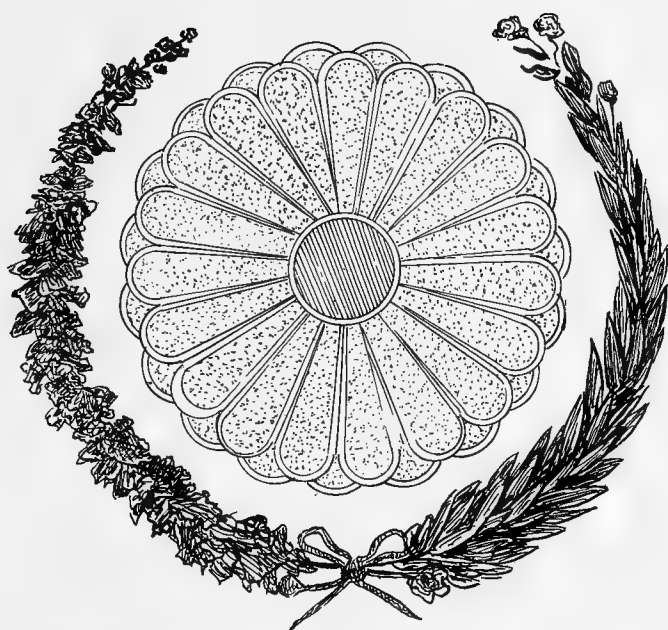
Servia expended on the army in 1914, \$958,835. Servia has no aeroplane fleet, but possesses a few scouting aeroplanes.



TYPES OF SOLDIERS



"FIRE"



Japan





YOSHIH TO HARUNOMIYA





EMPRESS SADAKO

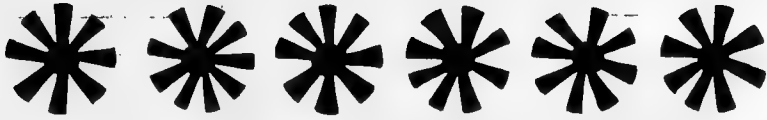




H. M. MUTSHITO, LATE MIKADO OF JAPAN

### YOSHIHITO HARUNOMIYA

The Emperor Yoshihito Harunomiya was born on August 31, 1879, at the Aoyama Palace, the third son of the Emperor Mutshito and the Countess Yanagaware. Though of frail physique, his severe and simple training and fondness for sports has succeeded in giving him normal health. He received his education at the Peer's School, where he distinguished himself in Chinese Classics and French. He is particularly fond of writing poetry and his efforts in Chinese and Japanese verse are much admired. He began his military education under General Oku and at sixteen was appointed colonel in the army. According to the custom whereby the Emperor names the most promising of his sons to succeed him, and owing to the death of his two older brothers, he was declared heir apparent in 1887 and proclaimed Crown Prince in 1889. He married on May 10, 1900, the Princess Sadako, daughter of Prince Michitaka of the House of Kujo. The Empress has also received a modern education, and both the Emperor and Empress usually appear in European dress. They have adopted European customs to a much greater degree than the Emperor Mutshito, and the new palace built for the Crown Prince is in the European style. Yoshihito succeeded to the throne on the death of his father on July 30, 1912. He has three sons: the Princes Hirohito Michinomiya (b. April 29, 1901), Yasuhito Atsunomiya (b. June 25, 1902) and Nobuhito Terunomiya (b. Jan. 3, 1905).



## HISTORY

The Japanese claim an ancient origin, lost in the myths of antiquity. According to their legends, there was in the beginning a divine trinity, resting on "the high plain of heaven." Bending down from their high estate, they separated the land from the waters. Then through indefinite processes, a series of seven celestial deities came into being, each process seeming to represent a nearer approach to earthly things. Finally by a further series of creations, purely spiritual, Japan was evolved, and from the earthly union of the two principal deities, the race of the Mikados arose. Other stories relate how Sosanoo, the God of Force, having disobeyed a celestial command was banished from Heaven, but before descending to Hades, invested one of his descendants with the sovereignty of Japan, and hence to this day the Japanese claim a divine descent for their emperors. The very word Mikado means venerable or august.

Coming down to historical times, we find that, about the early 6th century, B. C., Jimmu, a poor, but ambitious prince in possession of a small principality on the Island of Kiousiou, began the conquest of the Japanese archipelago. After many bloody contests with the natives, he succeeded in establishing his authority, and at his death in 585 left a fairly stable kingdom. The chronicles give scanty accounts of his successors, and none seem to have assumed any great importance until Sujin (98-30 B. C.). He undertook vigorous campaigns against the natives, ordered a census, levied taxes on animal skins, (which were to be paid by the men) and on textiles (paid by the women), built up a coastwise trade, and constructed dikes and reservoirs. The Emperor Keiko began the custom of granting lands to the numerous royal offspring, and thus laid the foundations of the landed nobility, who were to influence so widely the latter course of Japanese history.

Valuable and interesting descriptions of the early Japanese are found in the Chinese records from 25 to 265 of our era, and in point of accuracy are reliable, though the historical period of Japan does not begin until about 400. Chinese immigration, directly and indirectly through Korea, began early to flow into the country, and with the introduction of Buddhism from Korea in 552, Chinese civilization took deep root. The new faith did not entirely supercede the old religion of Shintoism, for at various times cults were formed for its preservation. Chinese customs, laws and art were introduced, and the Japanese even adopted the ancient Chinese literature as their own in a sense much stronger and more intimate than Europe adopted the Greek and Latin. Chinese music and dancing were taught, cross-bows and catapults were added to the war equipment, and architecture followed the Buddhist style. The luxurious refinements of Chinese life were eagerly adopted, and in scale of living and magnificence of dress, the Japanese far outshone their models. Kioto was at one time made the royal city, and the Emperors, surrounded by their numerous wives, rarely left the palace. As a consequence, the direction of political affairs easily fell into the hands of the great families, and as the Emperors felt the substance of their power slipping away, they attempted to grasp the shadow by the organization of the religious hierarchy, appointing its members from the imperial family. Kioto came thus to be the sacred city and its shrines the center of pilgrimage for all



Japan. The nominal power still remained with the Emperor, but the actual rule was in the firm and capable hands of the great families or clans, who by matrimonial alliances with royalty, or force, ruled with, or in spite of, the Emperor, and from the 9th to the 19th centuries the history of Japan is the history of the Fujiwara, the Taira, the Minamoto and the Tokugawa families.

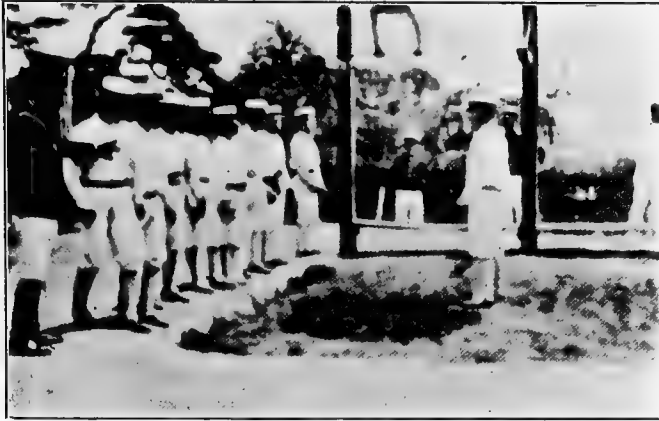
Under the Fujiwara families many temples were built, and great strides made in art and literature. Literary proficiency was considered the end of existence and a man "estimated the conjugal qualities of a young lady by her skill in finding scholarly similes and by her perception of the cadence of words." Side by side with these refinements, however, a system of military feudalism began to crystallize, which reached full development under the Taira and Minamoto families, and which in spite of much opposition held the country in a powerful grip. Society was divided into three groups: the court and nobility (*kuge*), the military class (*samurai*), and the common people (*heimin*). The Emperor screened in the recesses of his palace, was popularly supposed to be absorbed in mediation between his heavenly ancestors and his people, while the shogun and samurai kindly relieved him of all wordly concerns. He never appeared in public uncovered, and granted an audience from behind closed doors. Only his chief ministers and consorts had the inestimable pleasure of viewing his countenance; he had one wife, the Empress, but might have twelve consorts, and in case of failure of direct issue, the succession went to one of the Aisugawa or Fushimi, though adoption was resorted to in special cases. The court nobility traced their lineage from the ancient Mikados, filled all the court offices by right of inheritance, receiving indeed but a small recompense for their privileges, and lived a life of dignified poverty, occupying themselves with the consolations of literature and art. The samurai (see *Army*) held hereditary positions in the administrative posts. The *heimin* had no social position whatever and lived as best they could by the fruit of their toil. Below these were the *eta* (defiled folk) and the *hinin* (outcasts), who were utterly abandoned and despised by all, and made to live in a class by themselves. They had their own social organization and what with one trade and another, some even managed to amass considerable wealth. They were held in subjection until 1871, when they were admitted to the ranks of commoners.

By the middle of the 16th century, the strife between the feudal families had reduced Japan to such an unhappy state of confusion that she seemed doomed to perish; but fortunately at this juncture, three men appeared who by force of genius and circumstance were able to bring order out of chaos and confer a lasting peace upon their distracted country. They were Nobunaga, Tokugawa



THE EMPRESS JINGO RETURNING HOME IN TRIUMPH





Iyeyasu and Hideyoshi. Hideyoshi began as a groom in Nobunaga's service, and by sheer force of ability rose to a commanding position in the empire. Iyeyasu, though a firm Buddhist, introduced the code of Confucius and at his death left Japan with a settled government. During the reigns of these men, Christianity was introduced by St. Francis Xavier and his followers, and though they were at first received with encouragement, Hideyoshi and Iyeyasu eventually turned against the new faith. By 1639, not only was Christianity exterminated, but the country was committed to a policy of exclusion and isolation which remained unbroken until 1853, when Commodore Perry sailed into Uraga Bay with his squadron of four ships-of-war. This visit sounded the death knell of the feudal system; the wisest of her statesmen saw that Japan could not continue as before. The western world would seek her, and if she were to retain her position and increase her influence, western ideas and progressive reforms must be entertained. The people were beginning to be restive under the rule of the shoguns and public opinion was thus somewhat prepared for a change. On October 14, 1867, the Shogun Yoshinobu, a man of progressive policy, and advanced ideas, though there were not wanting men to impugn his motives, resigned his authority, restoring it to the Emperor Mutshito, then but fifteen years of age. Mutshito proved a man of liberal convictions and shrewd foresight, capable of appreciating the value of western ideas and able to draw around him men of the ability and energy necessary for the successful inauguration of the new reforms.

Liberal measures in accordance with western ideas were gradually adopted in industry, science, commerce, military matters, education, art and government. The Japanese have a wonderful power of assimilating new methods; their alert and agile minds are marvelously swift to grasp the essentials of a new idea, quick to modify and apply, and hence the reforms made a headway that is almost incredible to western minds. Almost overnight old customs and laws were overthrown, seemingly without a ripple on the smooth surface of events, and the re-adjustment came about apparently with the calmness of the natural course of events. As to whether these changes have really touched the core of that subtle oriental mind, glimpses of which still shine through the keen Japanese eye, only the course of events can decide. In 1871 an imperial decree put an end to the system of local autonomy and removed the territorial nobles from the posts of governors. This change also marked the end of the samurai as a privileged class. With remarkable resignation they submitted to the loss of their position and gradually, without a murmur, found places among the ranks of the common people. Under the skillful guidance of Prince Ito, Count Okuma and

Count Itagaki, the reforms were carried to conclusion. In 1890, a constitution, drafted by Prince Ito, was given to the people.

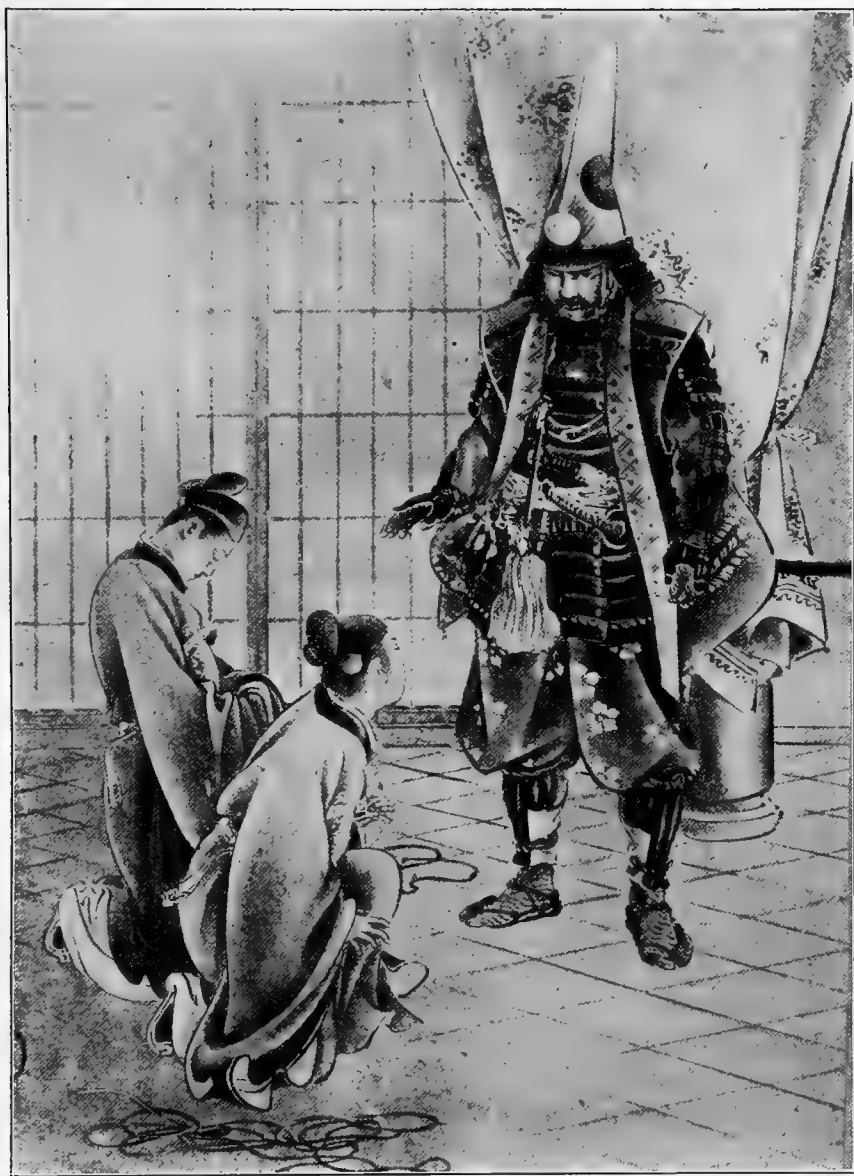
Filled with confidence and pride at the marvelous development of their country, the nation began to feel the necessity for expansion. A dispute with China over the relations of the two countries with Korea, led to the Chinese War of 1894, and from it Japan emerged with a formidable reputation for military efficiency. She gained also the Islands of Formosa and the Pescadores, and a slice of Manchuria. The Russian policy in the Far East, particularly in Manchuria and Korea, was watched with jealous alarm by Japan, but it was not until 1904 that she felt sufficiently strong, and the course of events allowed her to attack Russia. The Russo-Japanese War made her the dominating power in the Far East, gave her preponderance in Korea (which she annexed in 1910), the lease of the Liaotung peninsula and the southern half of the Island of Sakhalin, besides other minor concessions. Japan also entered into important commercial treaties with the United States and European powers, and in 1902 concluded an entente with Great Britain, which in 1905 was changed to an offensive and defensive alliance. Thus strengthened by foreign alliances, and secure in her position in the East, Japan at last felt justified in considering herself one of the world powers. The Emperor Mutshito died in 1912 and was succeeded by his son Yoshihito.

Japan has an area of 147,655 sq. mi., and a population of 52,985,423. The land is largely held by peasant proprietors and the chief industry is agriculture. Coal, copper, sulphur, iron and gold are considerably mined, and manufactures are rapidly developing. The exports for 1913-14 amounted to \$263,490, 920 and the imports to \$309,496,155.

The colonies and dependencies are: Cho-sen or Korea (annexed in 1910, area, 84,000 sq. mi.; pop., 15,164,066), Formosa (area, 13,944 sq. mi.; pop., 3,512,607, mostly Chinese), the Pescadores (area, 85 sq. mi.; pop., 55,222), Sakhalin (ceded by the Treaty of Portsmouth, 1905; area, 12,582 sq. mi.; pop., 42,612), Kwantung Province, including Port Arthur and Dairen (Russia transferred the lease, which expires in 1923, by the Treaty of Portsmouth; area, 1,219 sq. mi.; pop., 501,767).

According to the constitution, the executive power is vested in the Emperor, who is assisted by his ministers whom he appoints; and the legislative in the Emperor and the Diet. The Diet consists of a House of Peers (peers elected for life, including male members of the imperial family, princes and marquises over 25 years, and persons nominated by the Emperor for special services; and peers elected for 7 years), and the House of Representatives (members elected for 4 years).





GENERAL KATO KIYOMASA PARDONING THE TWO KOREAN PRINCES





TYPES OF UNIFORMS



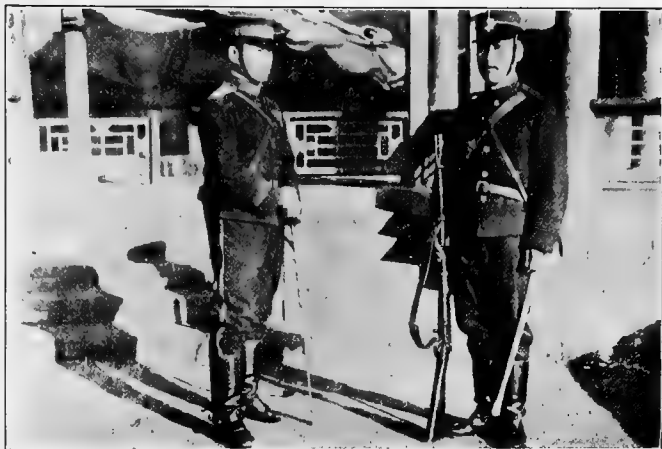
ADMIRAL TAKARABE  
Minister of Marine



1. ORDER OF THE SUNRISE
2. ORDER OF THE SACRED TREASURE



ADMIRAL DAVA  
In Command of the Operations  
Against Tsing-Tau



## THE ARMY

According to Japanese tradition, Japan was from the very beginning a nation of warriors. The sovereign was the commander-in-chief, and all subjects were obligated to serve in the ranks. About 712, Chinese models of warfare were adopted and the distinction between civil and military was first established then. One-third of the physically fit constituted the army, service was for a definite time, and arms were served out by the State as occasion demanded. Officers received definite commissions, a military office was organized, and each important district throughout the empire had its military division. At the close of the 8th century the Japanese in defense against the natives, had to enlarge their forces and the conscription was greatly increased. The powerful clans began to claim military positions as their right and to pass them down from father to son. In the 12th century the country was brought under the sway of the Minamoto clan and the samurai alone had the right of bearing arms. The military class claimed social and military supremacy until the 19th century.

This system developed among the samurai a type of soldier, frugal, loyal and pious to the last degree. They received their pay in so many rations of rice, delivered from the chief's granaries; a few even had landed estates, usually bestowed in recognition of merit, but the samurai profoundly despised everything connected with money. Their dearest privilege was the right of wearing a sword, and at any moment they were prepared to sacrifice themselves out of loyalty to chief or country. Thorough stoics, they were trained to face suffering without flinching and taught that suicide (*harakiri*) was often the noblest and highest form of duty, especially if it were thought that it would turn a liege lord from a course injurious to his fame or fortune.

Martial exercises took up much of their time, but they also paid considerable attention to learning and followed a set code of manners. The bow and sword were the chief weapons, and in the use of the latter the soldier gained a wonderful skill and dexterity. A samurai usually carried two swords, and before going into battle provided himself with five or six, and a dagger, for good measure, stuck into his bosom. Until 1274, men fought as individuals and not units, but the obvious disadvantage of such a system led to the adoption of better tactics, though it was not until the 17th century that strictly disciplined action came into use. Buddhism supplied a great impetus to the samurai's conception of duty and of life, and was largely instrumental in developing his qualities of endurance



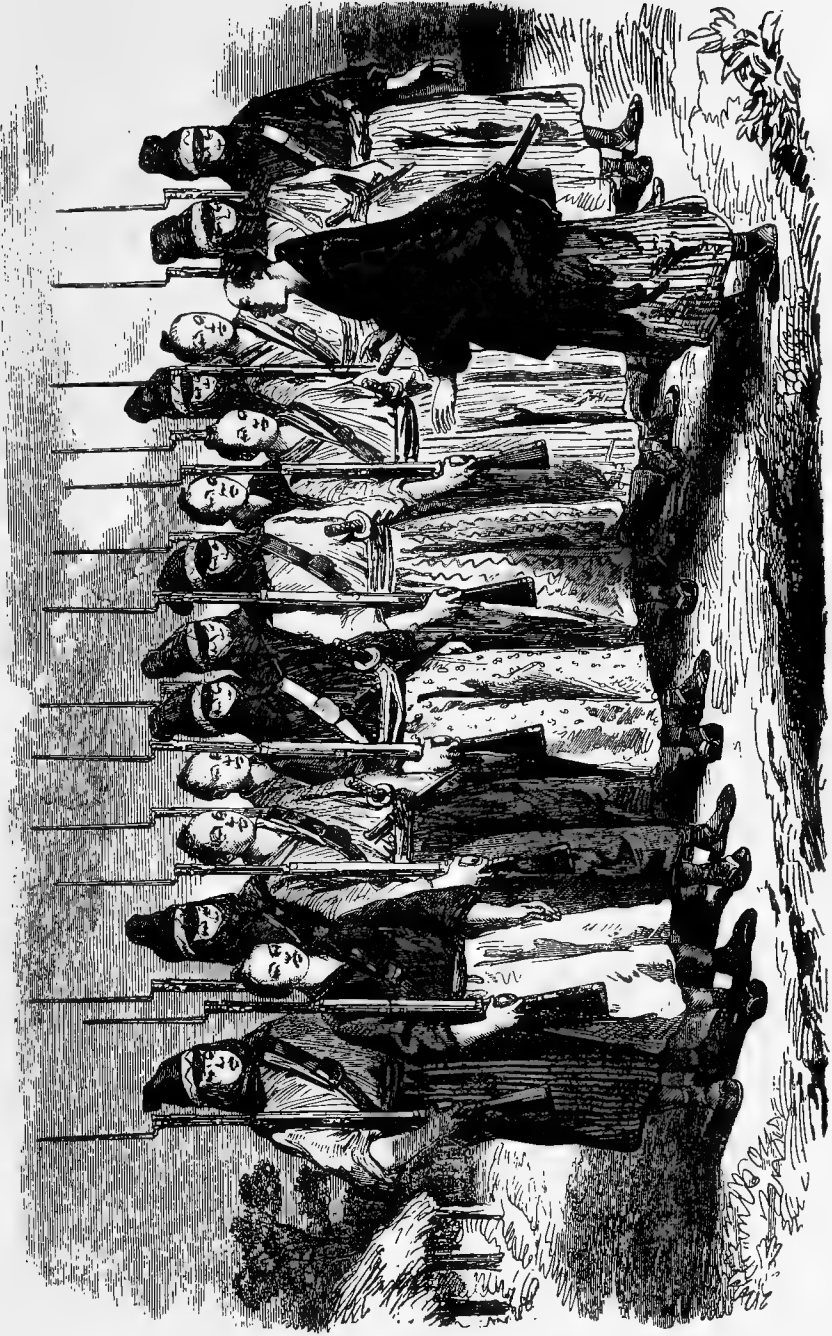
and fatalism, qualities which yet add enormously to the fighting power of the Japanese soldier.

Though after the Shimabara insurrection, the samurai was forbidden foreign learning, new ideas filtered in little by little. Takashima Shuhan endeavored to persuade his government of the importance of adopting foreign and modern methods, but was thrown into prison for his pains. Egawa, his follower, was more successful and the appearance of the American war vessels in 1853 decided the government to heed his urgings. In 1862 the military system of the West was introduced and Omura Masujiro founded a military school at Kioto (1868). In 1872 the Imperial Guard was organized, the military authority was placed in the hands of the central government, the war and navy departments were created, and universal conscription was substituted (1873) for hereditary militarism. From then the army was thoroughly re-organized on German lines, with results shown in the Chinese War of 1894 and the Russo-Japanese War of 1904. In both Japan was uniformly successful.

Military service is compulsory from the age of 17 to 40 but 20 is the more usual age for joining. The soldier serves two years in the infantry (three in the other arms), seven and one-third in the first reserve, ten in the second reserve, and the remainder in the national army. A special reserve, consisting of men who have escaped service with the colors, is divided into two classes: one which serves seven and one-third years and the other one and one-third years, and then the men pass into the territorial army, in which they receive no training. Conscripts may be discharged before the completion of their two years, for exceptional merit.

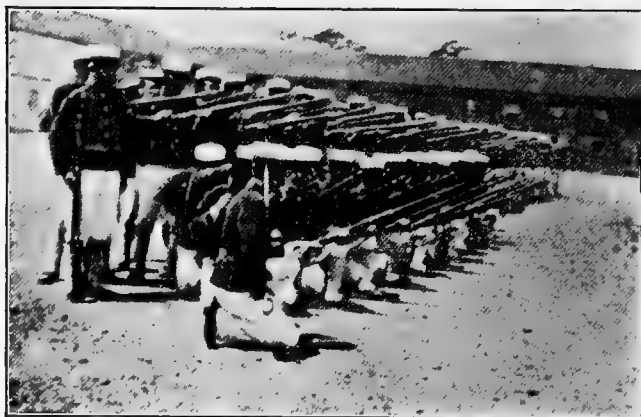
The army is divided into the active army (foreign service), with the first and second reserves, the national army (home defense), a few special forces, and the militia of certain of the islands. The peace strength numbers 150 infantry battalions; 55 squadrons of cavalry; 177 batteries of field artillery; 24 battalions of coast artillery; 13 battalions, pioneers; 13 battalions, train; one railway and one telegraph battalion;—giving a total of about 350,000 men. To this may be added 250,000 in the first reserve, and 1,000,000 in the second. Thus with all available reserves the war strength would be about 3,000,000.

Japan expended for her army in 1914, \$49,983,035.



INFANTRY OF 1860

CHANGING  
THE  
SENTINELS



ARMORY  
PRACTICE

TYPES OF  
INFANTRY





INFANTRY CHARGING



FIELD ARTILLERY PRACTICE



ENGINEERS BUILDING A BRIDGE



## THE NAVY



Though the geographical position of Japan demands a navy, the country never made any attempts to secure one until 1853, when the visit of the American squadron suggested to the government the advantages of a policy of building warships. In 1855 a navy yard was opened at Nagasaki, and a naval school organized at Tsukiji in Yedo. Two vessels purchased from the Dutch, and one presented by Queen Victoria, formed the nucleus of the fleet; in 1860 the "Kwanrin Manu," the first Japanese warship, crossed the Pacific. After the American Civil War the Japanese purchased the Confederate armored ram "Stonewall," and began a definite naval policy. In 1882 a program of 30 cruisers and 12 torpedo boats was laid down, but little more was done until 1892, when it was decided to appropriate annually \$150,000 for the navy. In the Chinese War of 1894, Japan had 28 cruisers and 24 torpedo boats, but with this slender force managed to defeat the superior Chinese fleet off the Yalu and at Wei-hai-wei. After this modern ships were ordered in Europe and in the Russian

War, the fleet was very successful. It then numbered 6 battleships, 8 armored cruisers, 44 other cruisers, 19 destroyers, and 80 torpedo boats.

The navy is under the control of a minister of Marine and a vice-minister, who are assisted by 10 departments on naval affairs and a general staff. The navy is manned partly by conscription and partly by volunteers; about 5,000 are called every year (45 per cent conscript). The service is for four years active and seven in the reserve. The *personnel* numbers 65,559, with a small reserve (6,000).





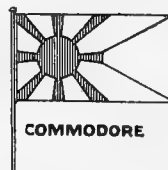
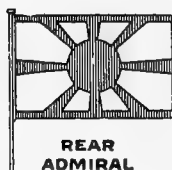
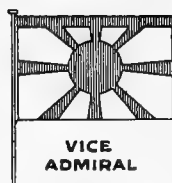
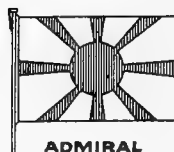
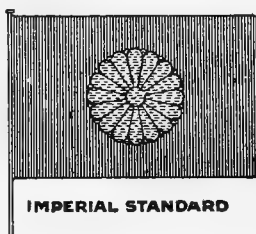
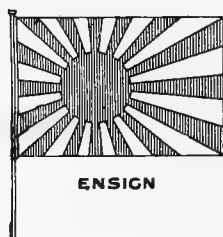
BATTLESHIP "TANGO"

Since 1882 Japan has dispensed with foreign instruction; since 1886 she has been able to manufacture prismatic powder, and since 1891, quick-firing guns. In 1892 a Japanese officer invented the powerful explosive, Shimose.

The strength of the fleet in 1914 is:

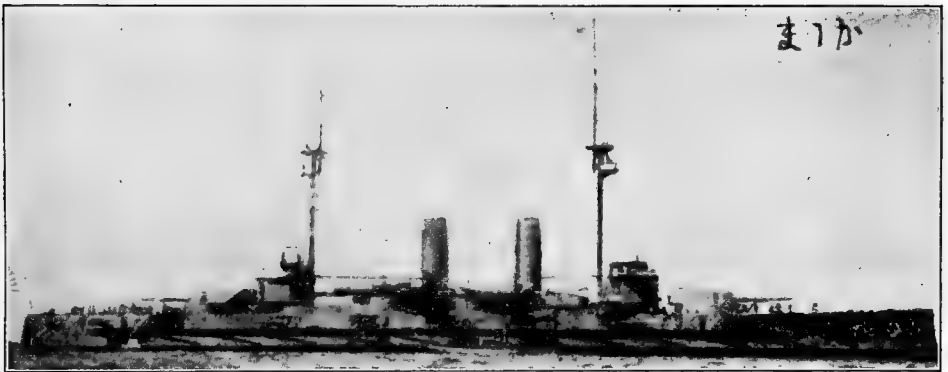
	Built	Building
Battleships .....	15	1
Battle cruisers .....	1	3
Armored cruisers .....	13	—
Protected cruisers		
1st class .....	2	—
2nd class .....	13	—
3rd class .....	4	—
Unprotected cruisers .....	4	—
Torpedo vessels .....	3	—
Torpedo destroyers .....	59	—
Torpedo boats .....	57	—
Submarines .....	13	2

Japan expended for the navy in 1913-14, \$49,304,560.

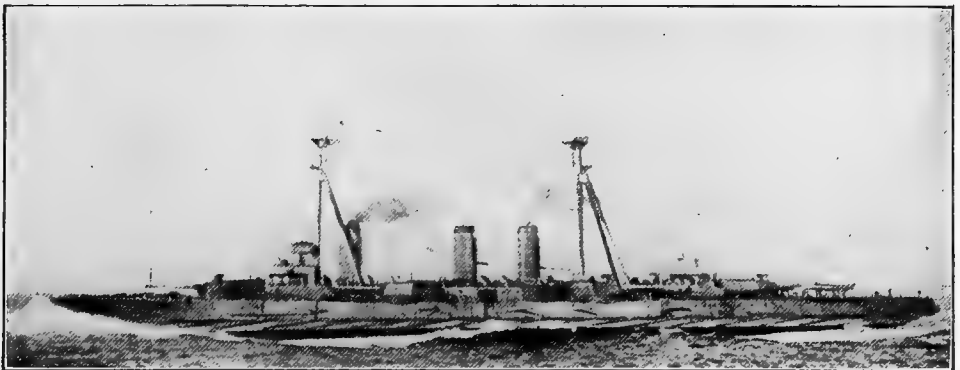




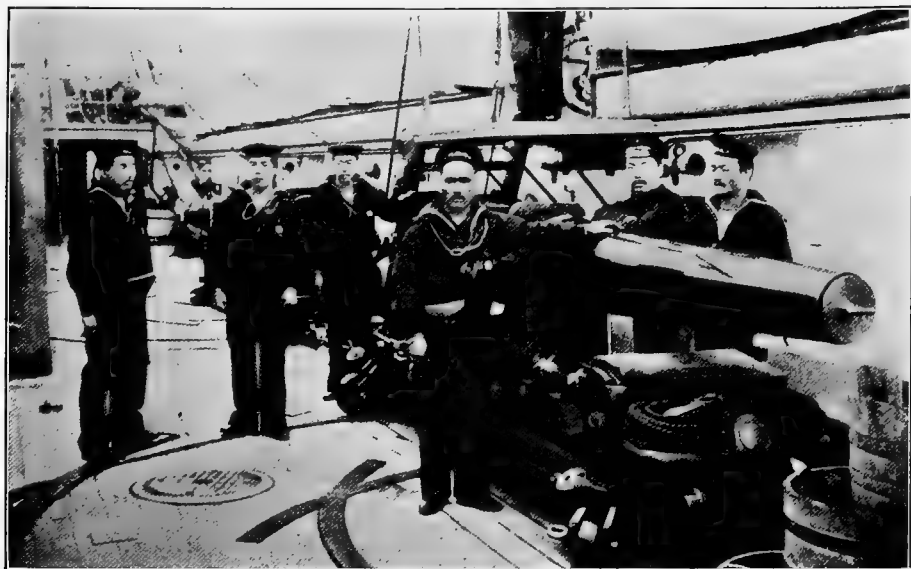
CRUISER "KONGO"



BATTLESHIP "KASHIMA"



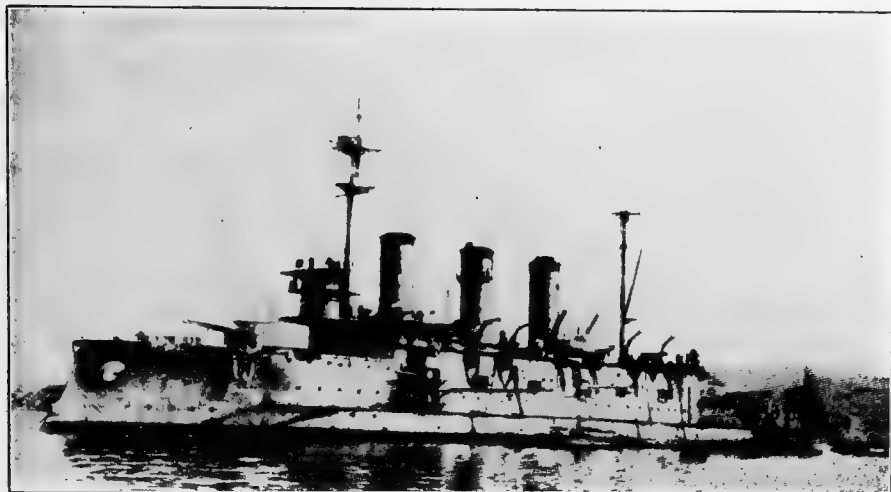
DREADNOUGHT "SETTSU"



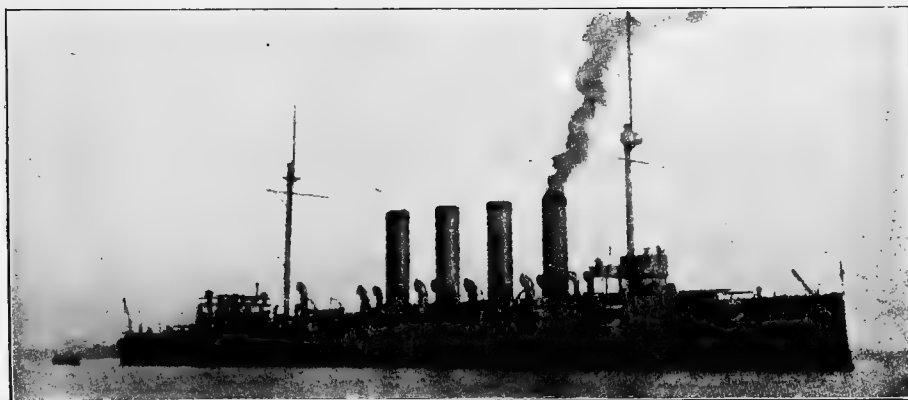
ON BOARD A DREADNOUGHT



SEA MINE EXPLOSION



BATTLESHIP "SUWO"



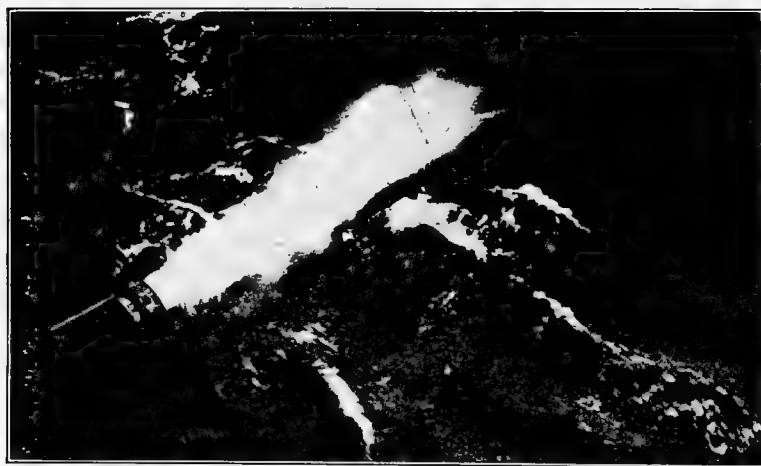
PROTECTED CRUISER "SOYA"



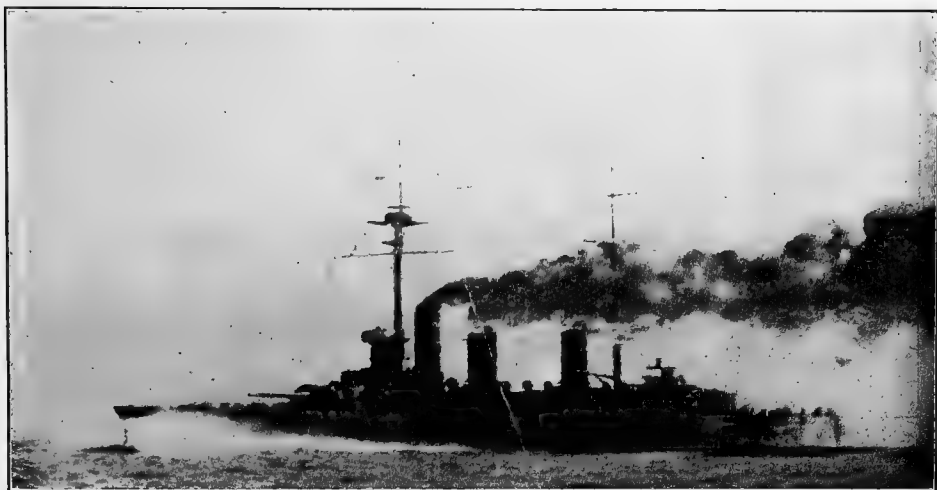
ARMORED CRUISER "IBUHI"



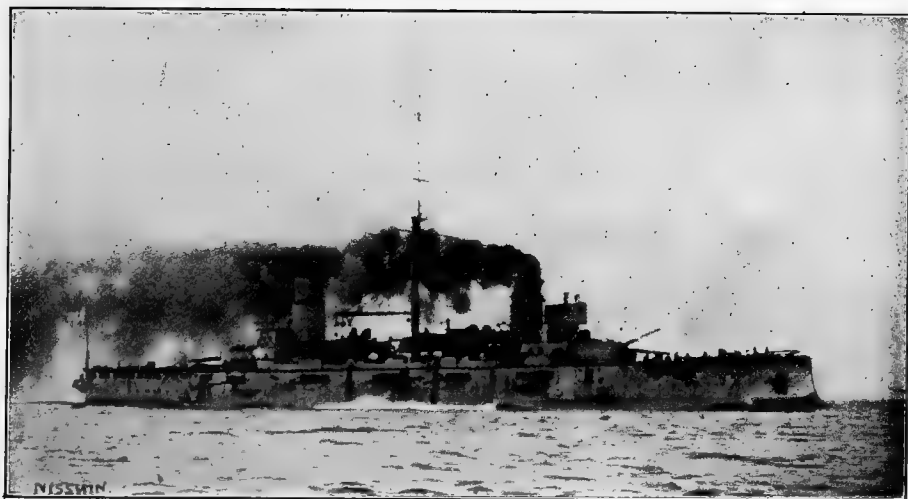
LOADING A TWELVE-INCH GUN



LAUNCHING A TORPEDO



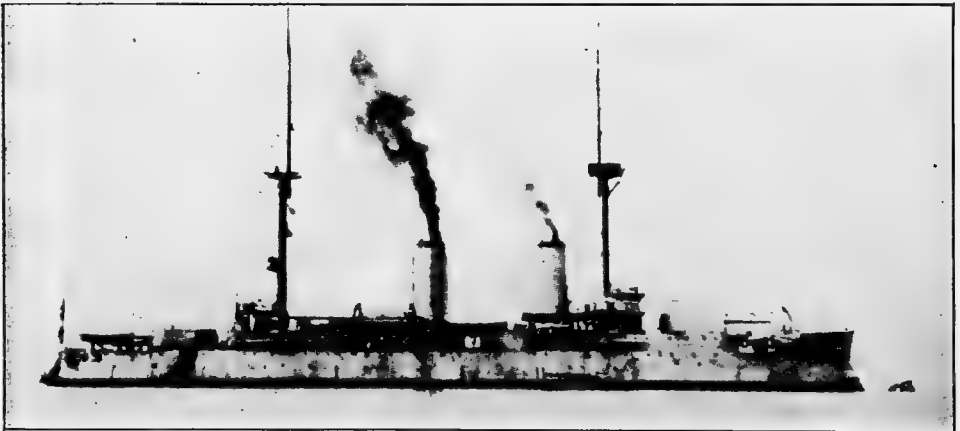
SEMI-DREADNOUGHT "AKI"



ARMORED CRUISER "MISSKIN"



SUBMARINE



BATTLESHIP "GWAMI"



VARIOUS PICTURES OF PRESENT INTEREST









NAPOLEON III AND BISMARCK  
Preliminary negotiations for the surrender of Sedan



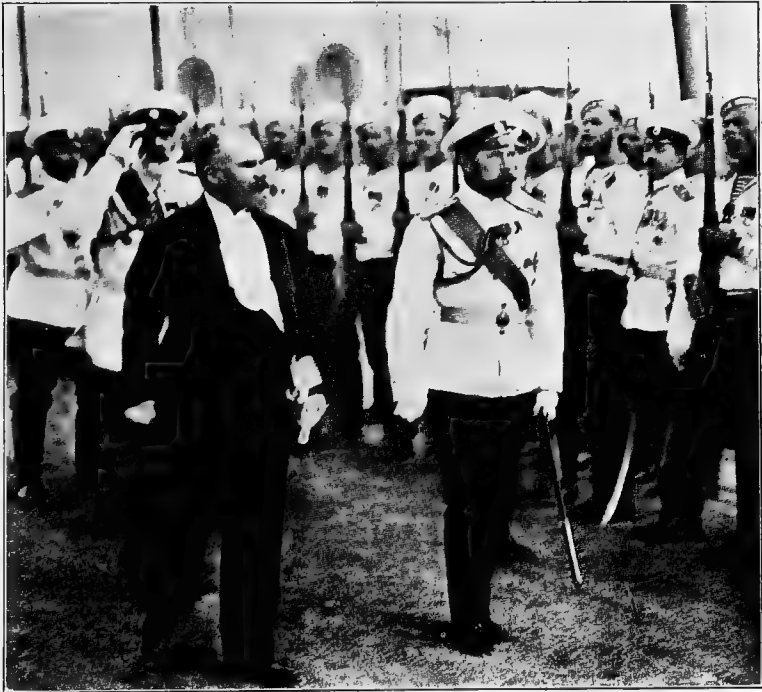
SIGNING THE NEW CONCORDAT BETWEEN SERBIA AND THE HOLY SEE,  
JUNE 24, 1914

Servia had before the Balkan War about 10,000 Catholics mostly foreigners, but in 1913 the new territories added a large number of Catholics, and the question of their jurisdiction threatened to complicate the strained relations existing between Austria-Hungary and Servia. The word Catholic had come to be synonymous with Austrian, and the people viewed with alarm any possibility of the extension of Austrian influence. King Peter proposed to the Holy See to conclude a concordat directly with the Servian government, thus removing any cause of friction that might arise from the possibility of Austrian control, and on June 24, 1914, the concordat was signed by His Eminence, Cardinal Merry del Val and Dr. Vesnitch, Plenipotentiary of King Peter. The announcement of this concordat, so near the assassination of the late Archduke Ferdinand, added to the grievances of the Austrian-Hungarian government against Servia.



### THE CZAR AND THE KAISER

The Kaiser in Russian uniform inspecting a company of his regiment during his last visit to Russia



PRESIDENT POINCARÉ AND THE CZAR ON THE OCCASION OF HIS LAST VISIT TO RUSSIA, JUST BEFORE THE WAR



KING GEORGE AND PRESIDENT POINCARÉ



THE PRINCE OF WALES AND PRESIDENT POINCARÉ



EMPEROR FRANCIS JOSEPH IN THE UNIFORM OF A MARSHAL OF  
GERMANY AND EMPEROR WILLIAM IN THE UNIFORM  
OF A MARSHAL OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

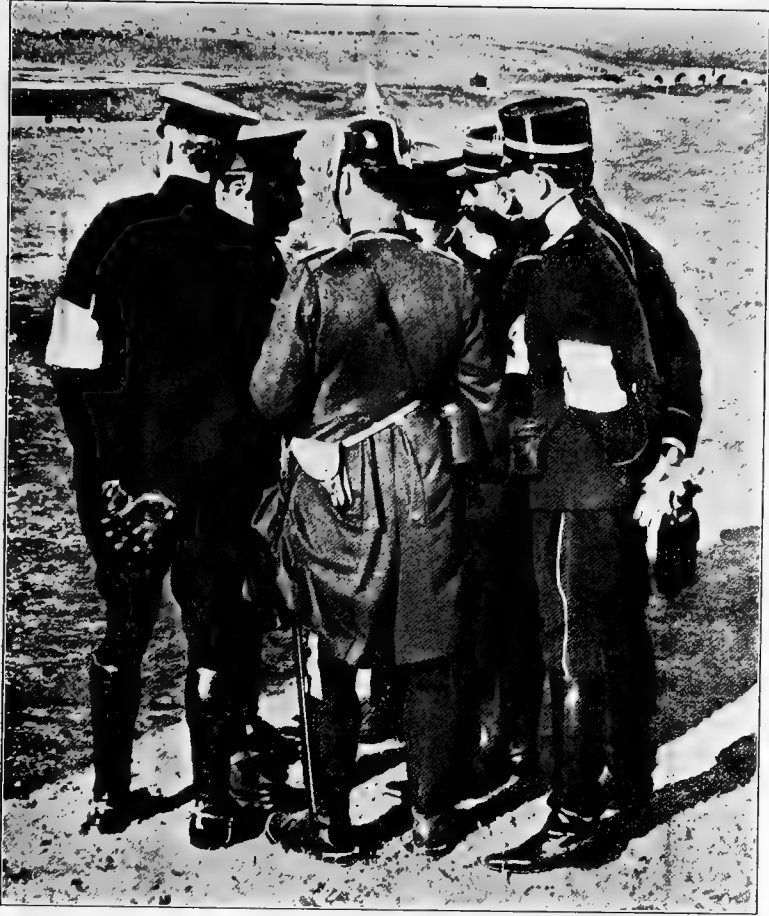


THE KAISER AND THE LATE ARCHDUKE FRANCIS FERDINAND  
IN UNIFORM AS GERMAN ADMIRAL



IN STRONG CONTRAST TO THE PRESENT INTERCOURSE BETWEEN FRANCE AND GERMANY, THESE PICTURES SHOW A GROUP OF FRENCH AND GERMAN SOLDIERS, ENGAGED IN A PLEASANT EXCHANGE OF FRIENDLY RELATIONS DURING THE MANOEUVRES OF THE SUMMER OF 1913.



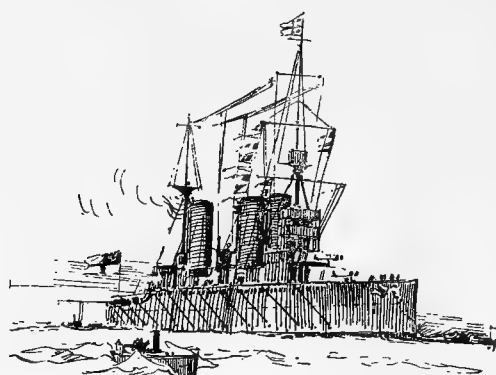


AUSTRIAN, ENGLISH, FRENCH, GERMAN, ITALIAN AND RUSSIAN  
OFFICERS WITHIN THE TURKISH LINES IN A FRIENDLY  
DISCUSSION OF THE BALKAN WAR



OFFICERS OF ALL NATIONS AT THE AUSTRIAN-HUNGARIAN  
MANOEUVRES





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The great powers of the first five sections follow in alphabetical order, as do also the powers of Section VI.

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## ERRATA.

- Page 7, line 29, for 1899 read 1889.
- Page 17, line 2, for The Empire is divided into 16 army corps as follows, read  
The Empire is divided into 16 army corps and the whole army is organized  
as follows:
- Page 18, Read at end of paragraph: Austria-Hungary maintained in 1914 an  
airfleet of 112 aeroplanes and 7 dirigibles.
- Page 86, for M. Delcassé, War Minister, read M. Delcassé, Minister of Foreign  
Affairs.
- Page 93, line 13, for Henry IX, read Henry IV.
- Page 148, for The 71 cm. anti-aircraft Krupp gun, read The 7.1 cm. anti-aircraft  
Krupp gun.
- Page 157, for Field Artillery in Action, read Artillery practising with dummy  
field pieces.
- Page 246, line 43, for 1905, read 1912.









